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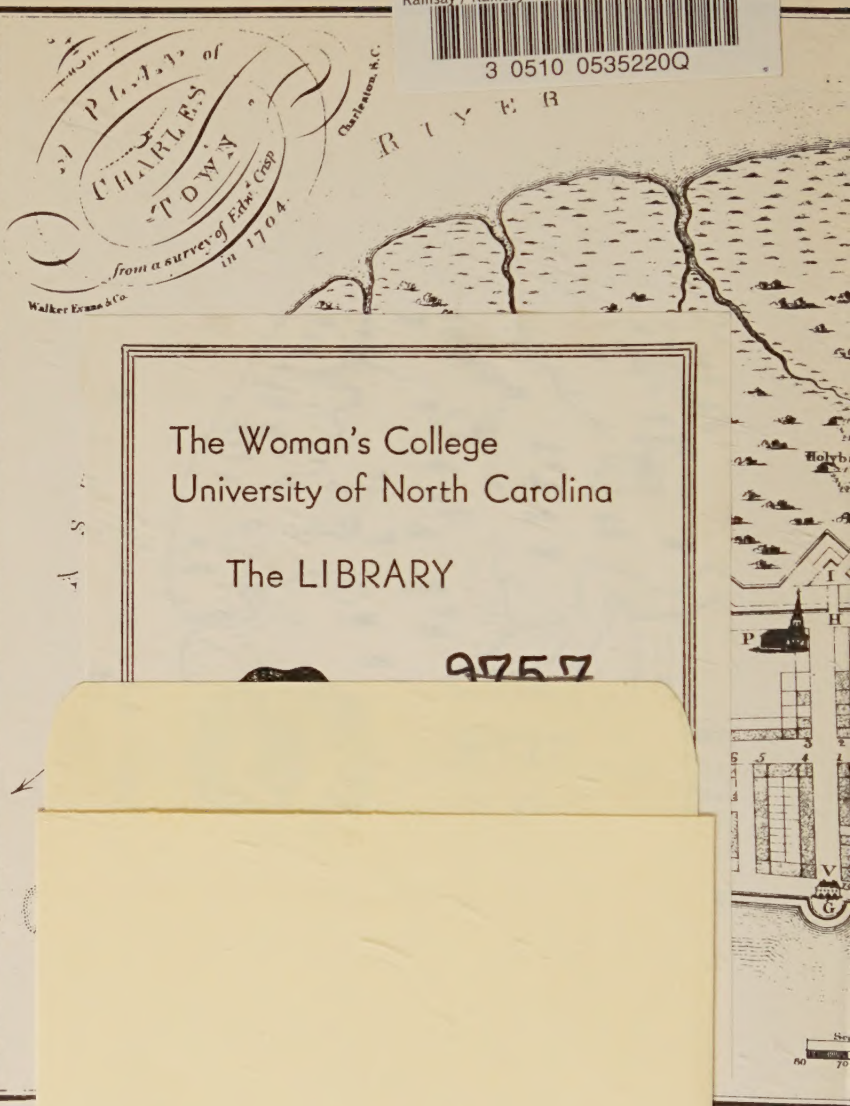

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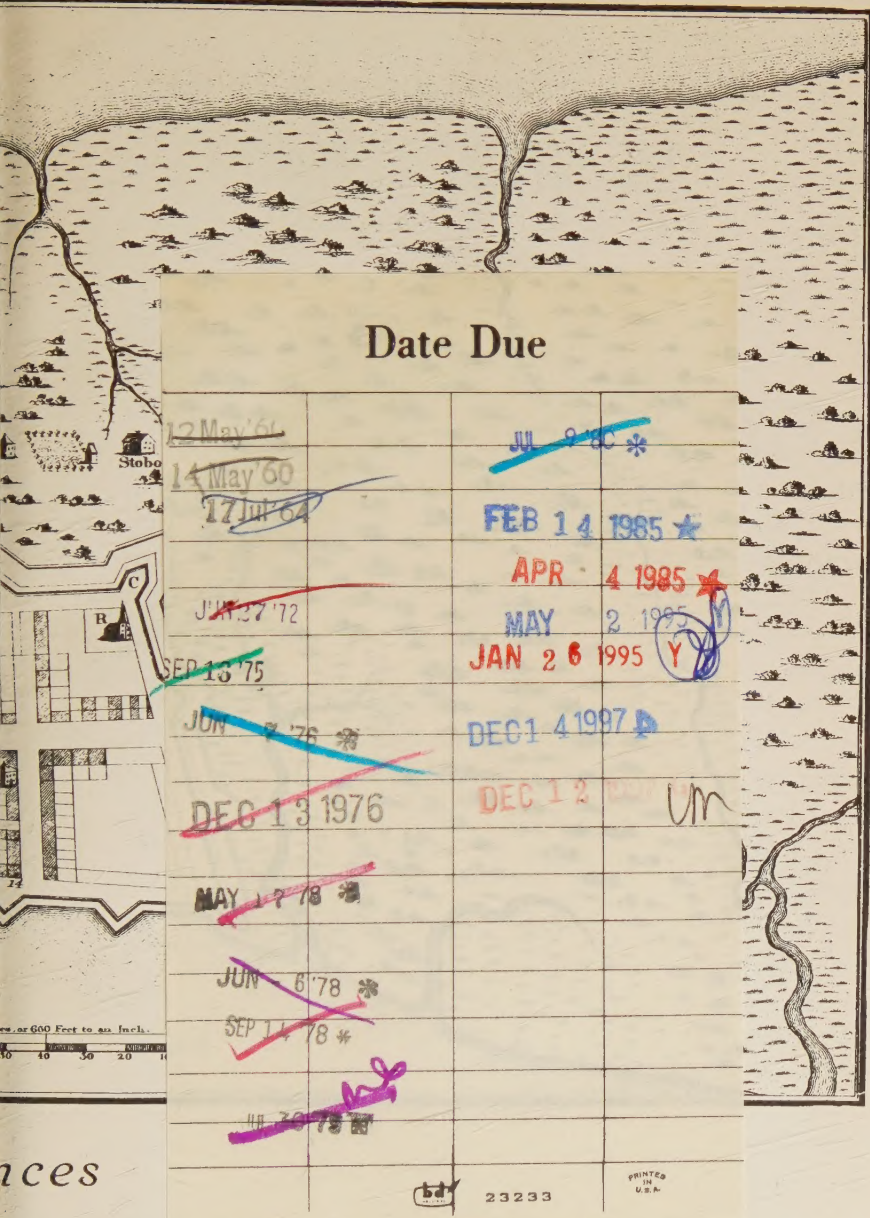

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HISTORY

OF

SOUTH CAROLINA,

FROM ITS FIRST SETTLEMENT IN 1670
TO THE YEAR 1808.

By DAVID RAMSAY, M. D.

"The Muse of History has been so much in love with Mars, that she has seldom conversed with Minerva."—*Henry.*

VOLUME II.

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1858

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ECCLESIASTICAL HISTORY OF SOUTH CAROLINA,

FROM 1670 TO 1808.

CHAPTER I.

The first settlers of South Carolina were of different religious persuasions. None had any particular connection with government; nor had any sect legal pre-eminence over another.*

This state of things continued for twenty-eight years. In that early period of the province divine service was seldom publicly performed beyond the limits of Charlestown, with the exception of an independent church formed near Dorchester in 1696. The inhabitants of the province were nevertheless kept in a state of social order; for they generally believed in a God, a future state of rewards and punishments, the moral obligation of the decalogue, and in the divine authority of the Old and New Testaments. The two first Acts of the Legislature which have been found in the records of the Secretary's office "enjoined the observance of the Lord's day, commonly called Sunday;" and prohibited sundry gross immoralities particularly "idleness, drunkenness, and swearing." Thus far the government aided religion in the infant colony. In the year 1698, one step further was taken by an Act "to settle a maintenance on a minister of the Church of England in Charlestown." This excited neither suspicion nor alarm among the dissenters, for the minister in whose favor the law operated was a worthy good man; and the small sum allowed him was inadequate to his services. The precedent thus set by the Legislature being acquiesced in by the people paved the way for an ecclesiastical establishment. In the year 1704 when the white population of South Carolina was between 5000 and 6000, when the Episcopalians had only one church in the province and the dissenters three in Charlestown and one in the country, the former were so far favored as to obtain a legal establishment. Most of the proprietors and public officers of

* The New-England plan of co-extending settlements and religious instruction by making a meeting house, and a minister, appendages to every new town was far from being common in Carolina; but was substantially adopted in some cases. The New-Englanders near Dorchester, the Irish at Williamsburg, the Swiss at Purysburgh, the French at New-Bourdeaux all brought their ministers with them, and each of these groupes had the benefits of religious instruction from the time they became Carolinians.

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the province and particularly the Govenor Sir Nathaniel Johnson, were zealously attached to the Church of England. Believing in the current creed of the times that an established religion was essential to the support of civil government, they concerted measures for endowing the church of the mother country and advancing it in South Carolina to a legal pre-eminence. Preparatory thereto they promoted the election of members of that church to a seat in the provincial Legislature, and succeeded by surprise so far as to obtain a majority. The recently elected members soon after they entered on their legislative functions took measures for perpetuating the power they had thus obtained; for they enacted a law "which made it necessary for all persons thereafter chosen members of the commons, house of assembly, to conform to the religious worship of the church of England and to receive the sacrament of the Lord's supper according to the rights and usages of that church." This Act passed the lower house by a majority of only one vote. It virtually excluded from a seat in the Legislature all who were dissenters, erected an aristocracy, and gave a monopoly of power to one sect though far from being a majority of the inhabitants. The usual consequences followed. Animosities took place and spread in every direction. Moderate men of the favored church considered the law as impolitic and hostile to the prosperity of the province. Dissenters of all denominations made a common cause in endeavoring to obtain its repeal. The inhabitants of Colleton county, who were mostly dissenters, drew up a statement of their grievances which they transmitted by John Ash to the proprietors praying their lordships to repeal the oppressive Act. Ash being coldly received, and despairing of relief from those to whom he was sent, determined to address himself to the English nation through the medium of the press; but death prevented the execution of his design. The dissenters, in two years after, made another effort to obtain a repeal of the obnoxious law. They drew up a petition and sent it by Joseph Boone to be presented to the House of Lords in England. In this they severely animadverted on the law, its authors and abettors. In consequence of their application a vote was passed "that the Act complained of was founded on falsity in matter of fact—was repugnant to the laws of England—contrary to the charter of the proprietors—was an encouragement to atheism and irreligion—destructive to trade, and tended to the depopulation and ruin of the province." The Lords also addressed Queen Anne, beseeching her "to use the most effectual methods to deliver the province from the arbitrary oppression under which it lay and to order the authors thereof to be prosecuted according to law." To which her majesty replied, "that

she would do all in her power to relieve her subjects in Carolina and protect them in their just rights."

Though the infant establishment of the Church of England was thus frowned upon by the ruling powers in England, and was disagreeable to a majority of the inhabitants of Carolina, yet no further steps were taken for restoring to dissenters their equal rights. The Episcopal party continued to maintain their ascendency in the assembly, and made legislative provision for extending and maintaining their mode of worship. In two years the colony was divided into ten parishes: St. Philips, Charlestown, Christ Church, St. Thomas, St. John, St. James, St. Andrews, St. Dennis, St. Pauls, St. Bartholomews, St. James Santee and each parish was made a corporation. Some of these were afterwards subdivided, and others occasionally formed as the population extended. Money was provided by law for building and repairing churches; lands were provided by donation, purchase, or grants from the proprietors, at public expense, for glebes and church yards;—salaries for the different rectors, clerks, and sextons of the established parishes were fixed and made payable out of the provincial treasury. Legislative acts were passed for the encouragement of Episcopal clergymen to settle in the province, and exercise their clerical functions in the several parishes designated by law. To such £25 was paid out of the public treasury immediately on their arrival in Carolina, and their annual legal salary commenced from the same period in case they were afterwards elected rectors of any of the established parishes by the resident inhabitants who were members of the Church of England.

This state of things with but little variation continued for seventy years, and as long as the province remained subject to Great Britain. In the course of that period, twenty-four parishes were laid off. Most of these were in the maritime districts and none more than ninety miles from the sea-coast.

The religious establishment which enjoyed so many and such highly distinguished privileges, was mildly administered. A free toleration was enjoyed by all dissenters. The law which excluded them from a seat in the Legislature was soon repealed by the Provincial Assembly. The friendship of the mother church, the patronage of government, and the legal provision made for clergymen, though partial and confined to one sect, were useful as means of introducing more learned ecclesiastics than would probably have been procured by the unassisted efforts of the first settlers. Religion assumed a visible form, and contributed its influence in softening the manners of dispersed colonists, who from the want of school-masters and clergymen were in danger of degenerating into savages. The prospect of attaining these advantages had a powerful influence

with the members of assembly in favor of an establishment. They saw with regret the increasing inhabitants destitute of public instructors, and knew their inability to reward or even to procure them. The society which about that time was incorporated in England for propagating the gospel in foreign parts, was able and willing to assist the infant colonies, both with ministers and the means of supporting them; but that could only be done in the mode of worship prescribed by the church of England. To obtain their aid, an establishment of the same form of public worship in the colony which prevailed in the parent state was deemed a prudential measure. The expected consequences followed. The society, on application, sent out ministers to Carolina and for a long time assisted to maintain them. They generally paid fifty pounds sterling to their missionaries; and besides, made valuable donations of books to be distributed by them or kept as parochial libraries. The Reverend Mr. Thomas, whose descendants of the fourth or fifth generation constitute a part of the inhabitants, was the first missionary sent out by the Society.

The number of Episcopal Clergyman who settled in Carolina anterior to 1731, is not known; but from that year till 1775, when the revolution commenced, their aggregate number was one hundred and two.* Most of them were men of regular education. Such of these and of others as arrived for nearly the first half of the 18th century were generally sent out as missionaries by the society for propagating the gospel

* List of the clergy of the Protestant Episcopal Church in South Carolina subsequent to 1730, with the date of their arrival. The Rev. Messrs. Thomas Hasel, William Guy, Stephen Coulet, Joseph Hooper, Francis Varnod, John I. Tissot, William Cotes, arrived in 1731; Daniel Dwight, Lewis Jones, Andrew Leslie, Joseph Buguiou, Timothy Mellichamp, Thomas Morrit, in 1732; Thomas Thompson, John Fulton, in 1733; Robert Gowrie, Lawrence O'Neill, in 1734; Peter Duplessis, in 1736; John Fordyce, William Orr, in 1737; Stephen Roe, Robert Small, in 1738; Levi Durand, in 1741; William M. Gilchrist, in 1742; Samuel Quincy, Charles Bosche, Alexander Garden, Jun., in 1744; Henry Chiffelle, in 1745; Robert Betham, in 1746; Alexander Keith, in 1747; Richard St. John, in 1748; Robert Stone, Robert Cumming, John Giessendaner, in 1750; John Rowand, in 1751; Michael Smith, in 1753; William Langhorne, William Peasely, Charles Martin, James Harrison, Richard Clarke, Alexander Baron, in 1754; Jonathan Copp, Robert Barron, John Andrews, Jenkin Lewis, in 1756; —— Sergeant, Samuel Fairweather, Robert Smith, in 1758; Robert Cooper, Samuel Warren, John Tonge, in 1759; Abraham Imer, in 1761; Joseph Stokes, Joseph Dacre Wilton, Offspring Pearce, —— Dormer, in 1762; John Greene, Samuel Drake, George Skeen, John Evans, William Teale, in 1763; Isaac Amory, Robert Dunscomb, in 1765; Samuel Hart, James Crallan, John Hockley, John Fevrier, —— Dawson, —— Lousdle, in 1766; —— Tourqand, Charles Woodmason, —— Streaker, 1767; Thomas Panton, John Lewis, Richard Farmer, Robert Purcell, Thomas Morgan, James Pierce, in 1769; John Bullman, Henry Purcell, D. D., Edward Ellington, in 1770; Alexander Findlay, in 1771; —— Villette, —— Schquab, Thomas Walker, —— Steward, Edward Jenkins, in 1772; —— Smith, —— Davis, Charles F. Moreau, in 1773; —— Dundas, in 1774; Benjamin Blackburn, in 1775.

The following clergymen have arrived since the revolution: Thomas Jones, Thomas Frost, Charles Lewis, Thomas Mills, William Blackwall, Penuel Bowen; Stephen Sykes, William Jones, —— Graham, Matthew Tate, —— Gates, William Smith, —— Pogson, —— Cotton, —— Woodbridge, William Best, William Nixon.

in foreign parts, and with a few exceptions they continued to preserve the good moral characters they all brought out with them. For some years before the revolution the number of officiating clergymen, at one and the same time, varied from twelve to twenty. Of the whole there was not a single native of Carolina. Two or three are said to have been born in the northern provinces, but all the rest were Europeans.

In countries where ecclesiastics have an official agency in the government, their history is additionally important as it is blended with the civil police. This was at no time the case in South Carolina. The people, both of the province and State, were always averse to the exercise of any civil power by ecclesiastics. Clergymen enjoyed the rights of British subjects or of American citizens; but at no time any distinguishing privileges by virtue of their office.

This jealousy has been continued under every form of government. The clergy under the present constitution are deprived of one of the rights of common citizens; for they are declared "to be ineligible to the office of Governor, Lieutenant-Governor, or to a seat in the Senate or House of Representatives." Though they derive no emoluments from the State, they are subjected to this disqualification on the ground "that they should not be diverted from the great duties of their function."

The same disposition manifested itself under the former order of things; for coeval with the establishment of the church of England, was the appointment of a board of commissioners by which it was enacted that twenty lay persons be constituted a corporation; who, in addition to a general superintendency over the temporal concerns of all the parochial churches, should exercise ecclesiastical jurisdiction, with full powers to deprive ministers of their livings at pleasure; not for immorality only, but also for imprudence, or on account of unreasonable prejudices taken against them. This was in fact taking the ecclesiastical jurisdiction out of the hands of the bishop of London, in whose diocese the whole British colonies in America were included, and transfering it to a select portion of the laity in Carolina. No record nor even tradition has reached us that these extraordinary powers were improperly used. They were in the first instance conferred on the following persons, who were highly esteemed by the people; Sir Nathaniel Johnson, Thomas Broughton, Nicholas Trott, Robert Gibbes, Henry Noble, Ralph Izard, James Risbee, William Rhett, George Logan, Arthur Middleton, David Davis, Thomas Barton, John Abraham Motte, Robert Seabrook, Hugh Hext, John Woodward, Joseph Page, John Ashby, Richard Beresford, Thomas Wilkinson, Jonathan Fitch, William Bull, Rene Ravenel, and Philip Gendron.

The institution of lay commissioners with such ample powers was disapproved by several in Carolina, and by more in England. The society for propagating the gospel in foreign parts, at a meeting in St. Paul's church, London, resolved not to send any missionaries to Carolina until the clauses relating to these extraordinary powers of the lay commissioners were annulled.

The government of the established church assumed another form about the year 1733. Alexander Garden was then appointed by the bishop of London to be his commissary; and as such to exercise spiritual and ecclesiastical jurisdiction within the provinces of North Carolina, South Carolina, Georgia, and the island of New Providence. His strict morals and steady adherence to all the forms of the Episcopal church qualified him in many respects for this high office. It was his duty to watch not only over the morals of the clergy, but to enforce their observance of the rules and forms prescribed by the church. In the former case he had all good men with him, for he was steady, strict, and impartial. In the discharge of the latter he was involved in a most unpleasant controversy with George Whitefield. This celebrated pulpit orator, educated in the church of England and ordained by the bishop of Gloucester, was in common with other Episcopal clergymen, under obligations to obey the canons of the church. These enjoin "the use of the form of prayer prescribed in the book of common prayer and of no other." Though Whitefield possessed an high esteem for these prayers, and always used them when he officiated in Episcopal churches; yet being often called upon to preach to large crowds, many of whom neither possessed nor knew how to use the book of common prayer in public worship, he departed from the rules of his church and performed divine service in the extempore mode usually practiced among non-Episcopalians. This was unquestionably an offence against the church of which he professed to be a member, and subjected him to its censures; but he took no guilt to himself, as being conscious that he was influenced by no selfish views nor improper motives, and that he was acting in subserviency to the great and benevolent purposes for which all churches were instituted. While the official duty of the commissary compelled him to enforce, among the members of the Episcopal church, an observance of its established forms; the expanded and liberal mind of Whitefield led him occasionally to set at nought all forms while he pursued the substance in the most direct practicable mode of obtaining it. His aim was to do the most extensive possible good; and therefore he was willing to preach, if circumstances required, in meeting houses, or even in the open air as well as in consecrated churches. Wherever he found

human beings desirous of religious instruction he readily preached to them, and prayed with them, either as the book of common prayer prescribed, or without any form whatever, as was deemed for the present most expedient. After he had indulged himself in these aberrations from the prescribed rules of his church, he was cited by commissary Garden to appear before the ecclesiastical court in the parish church of St. Philips on the 15th of July, 1740, to answer for the same. The result was a sentence of the court for suspending George Whitefield from his ministerial office.*

While this prosecution was pending, and for thirty years after, Whitefield was preaching almost daily to crowded congregations. So charmed were the people with his eloquence, that frequently no house could contain his hearers. The oftener he preached, the keener were their desires to hear him again. As a theologian reasoner, or writer of sermons, he had many superiors; but as an orator for impressing the heart,

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*The particulars of this novel and interesting trial, taken from the records of the court, were as follows: The first step was a citation from Commissary Garden, calling upon George Whitefield "to answer to certain articles or interrogatories which were to be objected and ministered to him concerning the mere health of his soul and the reformation and correction of his manners and excesses; and chiefly for omitting to use the form of prayer prescribed in the communion book." Whitefield appeared in court on the day appointed, but protested against the admission of any articles against him, alleging that he doubted the authority of the court to proceed in the cause, and prayed for time to exhibit his objections. This was granted. At the next meeting of the court he tendered exceptions in writing, "in recusation of the judge." At the same time he proposed to refer the causes of his recusation against the judge to six different arbitrators, three of whom to be chosen by the said Alexander Garden. A replication to these exceptions was made by William Smith, and the relevancy of the exceptions was argued before the court by Andrew Rutledge in behalf of George Whitefield, and the contrary was argued by James Greeme. The court, consisting of the Commissary and the Rev. Messrs. Guy, Mellichamp, Roe and Orr, clergymen assistants, unanimously decreed "that the exceptions be repelled." From this determination George Whitefield appealed to the Lords Commissioners appointed by the King for receiving and hearing appeals in spiritual causes, from his majesty's plantations in America. This was granted, and a year and a day allowed for prosecuting the appeal and hearing the result. It was ordered that in the interim all further proceedings should be staid. After the expiration of the limited time it was certified by the register of the court that no prohibition whatever from further proceedings in the said cause, nor any decree or determination of any superior court, had been interposed, and therefore on motion the business was resumed as if no appeal had been made. Due notice was given to George Whitefield to attend, but as he did not appear, the following articles and interrogatories were, after a proper pause, objected to him as if he had been present. "Imprimis, we article and object to you the said George Whitefield, that you were and are a minister in holy orders as deacon and priest, and that when you were admitted into the ministry you did, pursuant to the thirty-sixth canon of the canons and constitutions ecclesiastical, subscribe to the following articles: "That the book of common prayer, and of ordering of bishops, priests and deacons, containeth in it nothing contrary to the word of God; and that it may lawfully so be used, and that he himself will use the form in the said book prescribed in public prayers and administration of the sacraments, and none other."—Item, we article and object that you, the said George Whitefield, do believe and have heard say, that by the thirty-eighth canon of the canons and constitutions ecclesiastical, it is provided, ordained and decreed, "that if any minister, after he hath once subscribed the aforesaid article, shall omit the form of prayer prescribed in the communion book, let him

moving the passions, and for abashing, confounding, and beating down vice and immorality, he was exceeded by none. The unbounded applause he met with from men, and especially from women, was sufficient to have intoxicated him; nor was it wholly without effect, for he was but a man. As to wealth, power, pleasure, honor, or the ordinary pursuits of the vulgar great, he soared above their influence. All his popularity, and all his powers, as the greatest pulpit orator of the age, were employed by him in the capacity of an itinerant minister for advancing the present and future happiness of mankind, without regard to sect, party or denomination. Carolina was frequently the scene of his ministerial labors; and the religion of the province owed much to his zeal, diligence, and eloquence. It was also much indebted to that steady, inflexible disciplinarian, Commissary Garden. From the different temperaments of their minds, the one thought it his bounden duty to do what the other conceived it to be equally

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be suspended; and if after a month he do not reform and submit himself, let him be excommunicated; and then if he do not submit himself within the space of another month, let him be deposed from the ministry." Item, we article and object, that notwithstanding the premises in the foregoing articles mentioned and deduced, you the said George Whitefield, on diverse Sundays or Lord's days and week days, you have officiated as a minister in diverse meeting-houses, and more particularly in that commonly called the Presbyterian or Independent meeting-house in Charlestown, by praying and preaching to public congregations, and at such times have omitted to use the form of prayer prescribed in the communion or common prayer book, in contempt of the laws, canons and constitutions ecclesiastical aforesaid." Item, we article and object to you the said George Whitefield, that by reason of the premises in the foregoing articles deduced, you have incurred canonical punishment and censure, and were and are by us and our authority canonically to be punished, and to which and every part of which articles, we will and require you the said George Whitefield, to make true, plain, full, and faithful answer."

Successive adjournments were made to give time for the answer of George Whitefield, but he neither appeared nor put in any answer." The facts of his frequently preaching in dissenting meeting-houses without using the forms of prayer prescribed by the book of common prayer, were proved by Hugh Anderson, Stephen Hartley, and John Redman. A final decree, after a full recital of all facts, was pronounced in these words: Therefore we, Alexander Garden, the judge aforesaid, having first invoked the name of Christ, and setting and having God himself alone before our eyes, and by and with the advice of the reverend persons, William Guy, Timothy Mellichamp, Stephen Rowe, and William Orr, with whom in that part we have advised and maturely deliberated, do pronounce, decree, and declare the aforesaid George Whitefield, clerk to have been at the times articled, and now to be a priest of the Church of England, and at the time and days in that part articled, to have officiated as a minister in diverse meeting-houses in Charlestown in the province of South Carolina, by praying and preaching to public congregations; and at such times to have omitted to use the form of prayer prescribed in the communion-book or book of common prayer, or at least according to the laws, canons, and constitutions ecclesiastical in that part made, provided and promulged, not to have used the same according to the lawful proofs before us in that part judicially had and made. We therefore pronounce, decree, and declare, that the said George Whitefield, for his excesses and faults, ought duly and canonically, and according to the exigence of the law in that part in the premises, to be corrected and punished, and also to be suspended from his office; and accordingly by these presents, we do suspend him the said George Whitefield; and for so suspended, we also pronounce, decree and declare him to be denounced, declared, and published openly and publicly in the face of the church."

his duty to punish. Both were good and useful men, but in different ways. The one was devoted to forms; the other soared above them. The piety of the one ran in the channel of a particular sect of Christians; but that of the other, confined neither to sect nor party, flowed in the broad and wide-spreading stream of Christianity.

The dissenters increasing in numbers by emigrants, particularly from Scotland and Ireland, complained that while they had to build their own churches and maintain their own ministers, they were taxed in common with the Episcopalians to support their highly-favored mode of worship. The dissenters saw with regret several of their more wealthy followers desert a less fashionable church, and conform to that which enjoyed the patronage of government. They nevertheless maintained a respectable standing. The Presbyterians in particular, formed congregations not only in Charlestown, but on three of the maritime islands, and at Wiltown, Jacksonborough, Indian Land, Port Royal, and Williamsburgh. These were maintained by the contributions of their members. In process of time considerable funds were established by private donations for the permanent support of their mode of worship. While every Episcopal church was a corporation capable of holding property, of suing and being sued, the congregations of dissenters, not being known in law, could only hold property by the intervention of trustees: a mode of tenure often attended with loss, and always with trouble.

To these inconveniences the dissenters were obliged to submit, and probably must have continued to do so, if the revolution had not taken place. The change of government from proprietary to regal brought to them no relief. For Kings, even more than the proprietors, thought they had an interest in cementing the alliance between church and state, and connecting the altar with the throne.

When the people of Carolina, in common with their fellow-citizens, broke the chains which bound them to Great Britain, a new order of things took place. While the established church was chiefly confined to the vicinity of the sea-coast, in the course of the forty years which preceded the revolution, numerous bodies of dissenters had migrated from the more northern provinces and settled in the northern and western parts of Carolina. These, added to their brethren on the sea-coast, gave them a decided superiority in point of numbers. The physical force of the country, so necessary for its defence against Great Britain, rested in a great degree in their hands. The crisis demanded union and was favorable to the re-establishment of the rights of man. Though the people of South Carolina engaged in the revolutionary war primarily for their

civil liberties, they did not overlook their claims to equal religious privileges without discrimination or preference. The judicious and moderate among the members of the established church saw and felt the propriety and necessity of relinquishing the advantages they had long enjoyed; and with more readiness than is usual among those who part with power in possession, consented to a constitution which repealed all laws that gave them pre-eminence. The dissenters felt their weight, and though zealous in the cause of independence, could not brook the idea of risking their lives and fortunes for anything short of equal rights. Moderation, liberality, good sense and sound policy prevailed with both parties. The hopes of the enemies of independence that union could not be preserved among the discordant sects of religionists were disappointed. The energies of the inhabitants in maintaining their liberties were in no respect weakened. The prize contended for being made equally interesting to all, equal exertions were made by all for obtaining it.

The experience of more than thirty years has proved that an established church is not essential to civil government; that citizenship is a bond of union sufficient for all its necessary purposes; that the true mode of promoting the public interest and preserving peace among different sectaries, is for the constituted authorities to lean to neither; but, standing erect, to give equal protection to the persons, liberties and property of all, without noticing their religious opinions and practices, while they do not disturb the equal rights of others or the peace and order of society; and to leave to the different sectaries the exclusive management of their respective religious interests. Proceeding on these principles, the inroads made on morals and religion by the revolutionary war in Carolina have been gradually done away. The acrimony of speech, the sourness of temper and the shyness of intercourse which had too much prevailed among religious sects before the revolution, have since that event given place to christian benevolence. The heat of party zeal has become more moderate. Men have discovered that their opinions with regard to speculative points are often as different as their faces, and that the harmony of society and the intercourse of life ought not to be interrupted by the one more than by the other. Without any interference on the part of the State, churches have been built, congregations formed, ministers settled and maintained, peace and good will preserved among the different sectaries. At the same time great liberality has been often spontaneously and reciprocally displayed in assisting each other in pecuniary concerns connected with the support of their respective forms of worship.

A revolution in the government of the church grew out of the civil revolution. A complete severance of all connection between church and State being accomplished by that great event, ecclesiastical proceedings, censures, punishments, infer no penalties nor any deprivation of civil rights.' In this respect the churches of South Carolina have improved on their respective European prototypes. In England and Scotland the proceedings of spiritual courts are frequently vexatious and expensive. Excommunication from the church is nearly equal to an outlawry. A solitary instance of this occurred in South Carolina in 1765, in which the royal Governor William Bull, as ordinary of the province, pronounced a sentence of excommunication against an individual for refusing obedience to his summons. The powers of these courts, where useful and necessary, have been transferred to civil establishments. There are now no spiritual courts in the State. No canons, decrees, acts, orders or regulations, either of bishops, presbyteries or religious associations of any kind, can involve a person, however contumacious, in civil disabilities or to any extent further than excluding him from the sacraments of the offended church, or from being considered as one of its members. Churches, as corporations, can enforce their by-laws, but their powers as spiritual courts are merely advisary; for the civil authority neither issues nor aids any ecclesiastical process. The constitution recognizes clergymen only for the purpose of declaring them ineligible to civil offices. The act for regulating the fees demandable for the performance of certain enumerated public duties, allows them to take from all voluntary applicants a small fee for registering births, marriages and funerals—for a search of these registers and a certified extract from them. The same law authorizes them to demand five shillings for reading in church every citation from a civil officer, called ordinary, preparatory to the granting letters of administration on the estates of intestate persons. They are also by law excused from the performance of militia duty or serving on juries. Thus far and no further the constitution and laws of the State notice the clergy. For the solemnization of marriages, application is generally made to them; but this is not legally necessary. Marriages with or without licenses or publication of the bans by clergymen or justices of the peace, are in law all equally valid; but when contracted are indissoluble. The churches have no authority to grant divorces. Every application to the civil power to legislate on this subject has been unsuccessful. The courts have no jurisdiction. No power exists in the State competent to grant them, nor can it be otherwise till the legislature pass a law for the purpose.

A brief view of the present state of religion in Carolina will close this chapter.

The Episcopalians since the revolution labored under peculiar disadvantages. Their church was incomplete without bishops, and their whole body of clergy and laity was incompetent to invest any individual, or number of individuals, with Episcopal powers. This boon could only be obtained through some of the successors of the apostles in the old world. Twelve years subsequent to the revolution passed away before Episcopal ordination could be obtained in South Carolina.* In the meantime the non-Episcopalians, animated with the recovery of their long lost equal rights, proceeded vigorously in organizing churches and extending their forms of worship.

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* To preserve the uninterrupted succession of Episcopal ordination, it was necessary either that the American candidates for the ministry should go to European bishops, or that ecclesiastical officers of that high rank should be constituted in the United States. The former was the mode usually adopted before the revolution, and in a few instances after its commencement. Insuperable difficulties opposed its continuance. The laws of England required all candidates for holy orders to take an oath of allegiance to his Britannic majesty. This could not be done by the citizens of independent America. The English bishops with great liberality applied for, and obtained an act of parliament, authorizing the ordination of clergymen for the United States without their taking an oath of allegiance to his Britannic majesty. This afforded only partial relief. An American Episcopate was therefore proposed as the only remedy adequate to the exigency. The non-Episcopalians, before the revolution, had opposed this measure, but cheerfully acquiesced in it after that event had placed their rights and liberties beyond all foreign interference. The proposed measure was readily and without difficulty substantially agreed upon by the Episcopalians on both sides of the Atlantic, yet many previous arrangements were necessary to give it effect. The English bishops required evidence of the orthodoxy, regularity, and order of the Episcopal churches in America, and also of the acquiescence of the civil government of the new formed States in the proposed Episcopate. Certificates of the latter were easily obtained. Conventions of the American Episcopal clergy and laity were held in several successive years and in different States, which finally agreed upon such alterations of the prayers, forms, and officers of the church as local circumstances and their new political condition required. In these the Episcopal church of South Carolina was represented by the Rev. Dr. Purcell, Jacob Read, and Charles Pinckney. The proposed alterations being submitted to the heads of the church in England, were so far approved as to be no obstacle in the way of their consecrating bishops to preside over the American Episcopal church. Dr. Provost of New York, and Dr. White of Philadelphia, were accordingly in 1787 ordained and consecrated bishops of the American Episcopal church at the archiepiscopal palace of Lambeth by the archbishops of Canterbury and York, and by the bishop of Bath and Wells, and the bishop of Peterborough. Not long after, Dr. Madison of Virginia was ordained and consecrated in England to be a bishop in America. The Episcopal church was then for the first time complete in the United States. Three or rather four American clergymen were promoted to the rank of bishops by British Episcopal consecration. These jointly were competent to perpetuate their own order, and each of them separately had the power of ordaining priests and deacons. The uninterrupted succession was not only preserved, but its unbroken chain was extended across the Atlantic with full powers to perpetuate itself. In consequence of these arrangements, the right Rev Robert Smith, D. D. was by four bishops, convened in Philadelphia in September 1795, consecrated bishop of the Protestant Episcopal church in South Carolina. He continued in the discharge of the duties of that office till his death in 1801. This was the second consecration of a bishop which had taken place in the United States. Since the death of bishop Smith there has been no bishop of his church in South Carolina. The candidates for holy orders are now under a necessity of repairing to the northern States for ordination.

The patronage which the Episcopalians enjoyed, under the royal government, made them less able to stand alone after that patronage was withdrawn. Man is a creature of habit. Voluntary contributions for the support of religion had been so long customary with the dissenters, that when the pressure of war was removed they readily resumed their ancient habits; but the case was otherwise with the Episcopalians: for as their form of worship had for seventy years been in a great measure supported from the public treasury, they were not so immediately impressed with the necessity of advancing their private funds for that purpose.

For these and other reasons the Episcopal church languished in South Carolina for several years after the revolution. Though it maintained a respectable standing in their two ancient houses of worship in Charlestown,* it made for some time but little progress in the country. Better prospects are now before its members. Experience has convinced them of the propriety of voluntary contributions for the support of religion. Their church is completely organized within the United States. They are no longer confined in the choice of clergymen to strangers: for natives of the country, of the purest morals and best education, have with pious zeal entered upon or are preparing themselves for the work of the ministry in such numbers as exceed anything heretofore known in Carolina. Their long neglected places of worship in the country are repairing, and new ones are building. Divine service according to the book of common prayer is now regularly performed in Beaufort by the Rev. Mr. Hicks; in St. Andrews by the Rev. Mr. Mills; in St. Bartholomews by the Rev. Mr. Fowler; in St. Johns by the Rev. Mr. Gadsden; in St. Thomas by the Rev. Mr. Nankeville; at the high hills of Santee by the Rev. Mr. Ischudy; and at St. James Santee by the Rev. Mr. Mathews. In most of the other parishes where the establishment operated before the revolution, there are Episcopal churches, but at present no settled ministers.

The Presbyterians were among the first settlers, and were always numerous in Carolina. Their ministers in the maritime districts were mostly from Scotland or Ireland; men of

* Charlestown and Charlestown Neck constituted one parish by the name of St. Philips till 1721, when a new one named St. Michaels to the southward of Broad-street was established by act of assembly. Divine service was first performed in the present church of St. Philips in the year 1723; and in that of St. Michaels in 1761. On the site of the latter, a church originally called St. Philips had been previously erected about the year 1690, which was the only Episcopal church in South Carolina prior to the establishment in 1706. Divine service was performed in St. Philips church for three-fourths of the 18th century by two rectors: thirty-four years by commissary Garden, and forty-two by bishop Smith. The Rev. Dr. Jenkins is the present rector, but being absent, divine service is performed by the Rev. Dr. Percy, and the Rev. James Dewar Simons. The Rev. Nathaniel Bowen is the rector of St. Michaels church.

good education, orderly in their conduct, and devoted to the systems of doctrine and government established in Scotland. The zeal of their adherents had amassed considerable funds before the revolution, but these were materially injured by the failure of trustees and the depreciation of the paper currency. They have a numerous and wealthy congregation in the capital,* and the Presbytery of Charlestown consists of five ministers. To them seven congregations† look up for religious instruction. It was constituted at an early period of the 18th century, agreeably to the principles and practice of the church of Scotland, but during the revolutionary war was unfortunately dissolved by the death or removal of the ministers constituting it; and all its books and records were lost or destroyed.

In the year 1790 four of the congregations belonging to the said Presbytery, being the only ones then provided with ordained ministers, addressed a petition to the Legislature praying to be constituted a body corporate, chiefly with the view of raising a fund for the relief of the widows and orphans of deceased clergymen belonging to their society. This was promptly granted.

From the time of its incorporation the Presbytery of Charlestown has held regular stated meetings, and has exercised the power of ordination and the other functions of a Presbytery.

Impressed with the importance of union in religious matters they applied, in 1799, to the General Assembly of the Presbyterian churches in the United States, to be received into communion with the said Assembly and to be admitted members of their body. Agreeably to the prayer of this memorial and petition, the Presbytery of Charlestown was received a constituent part of the General Assembly. Of the numerous emigrants to the western parts of Carolina, in the last fifty years of the 18th century, a great majority were Presbyterians.

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* The present Presbyterian church in Charlestown was built about the year 1731. Its ministers, as far as can be recollected, were the Rev. Messrs. Stuart, Grant, Lorimer, Morrison, Hewat, Graham, Wilson, and Buist. Previous to 1731 the Presbyterians and Independents formed one society, and worshipped together in a church which stood on the lot which is now occupied by the circular church.

† The Presbytery at present consists of the following congregations and ministers: 1. Presbyterian church of Stoney Creek, Prince Williams, Rev. R. Montgomery Adams. 2. Presbyterian church of Salt Catchers. 3. Presbyterian church of Black Mingo, Rev. W. Knox. 4. Original and first incorporated Presbyterian church of Willamsburgh. 5. Presbyterian church of the city of Charlestown. 6. Presbyterian church of Edisto Island, Rev. Donald M'Leod. 7. Presbyterian church of John and Wadmalaw Islands, Rev. Doctor Clarkson.

These different congregations are incorporated and have glebes or funds of greater or less extent.

The following congregations belonged formerly to the Presbytery, but have not connected themselves with it since its incorporation, viz. James Island, Wiltown, Pon Pon, and St. Thomas.

They had little regular preaching among them till about the year 1770, when missionaries from the northward formed them into churches. These were revived and increased after the revolution, and have since been constantly supplied with ministers who have been formed into regular Presbyteries and synods in connection with the General Assembly of the Presbyterian church of the United States. Most of their clergymen were born and educated in America. These are now formed into two Presbyteries consisting of more than twenty ministers, and have in connection with them about sixty congregations. There is also a Presbytery of seceders in South Carolina consisting of nine ministers, who have under their care twenty-two congregations. Each of these Presbyteries possesses and exercises the power of ordination.

The Baptists formed a church in Charlestown about the year 1685.* Its first minister was the Rev. Mr. Screven, the founder of a numerous and respectable family. He began his ministerial labors in the province about the year 1683, and continued them till the time of his death in 1713. His successors in the Baptist church of Charlestown were the Rev. Messrs. Fry, White, Tilly, Simons, Chanler, Bedgewood, and Hart; who, with some intervals, supplied the church till 1780. In the year 1787, the Rev. Dr. Furman who is now living, was invested with the pastoral care of it. Anterior to the revolution in 1776, they had increased to about thirty churches. Since the establishment of equal religious rights they have increased so that they now have five associations consisting of 100 ministers, 130 churches, 10,500 communicants, and about 73,500 adherents; reckoning seven of the latter for one of the former.

The Independents or Congregationalists in conjunction with the Presbyterians were formed into a church in Charlestown about the year 1690. These sects, after forty years of union, differing only in the form of church government,† separated and formed different churches. The Independents kept possession of their ancient house of worship, long known by the

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* A subdivision of the Baptists, known by the name of Arian or General Baptists, was formed into a church about the year 1735. This society became extinct about the year 1787.

† Both agreed in doctrine, mode of worship, and in renouncing the power of bishops; but the latter were willing to submit to the authority of a Presbytery, while the former, exercising in their congregational capacity every necessary power for governing their own church without any extrinsic interference, claimed to be an independent self-governed society. By their constitution they are at liberty to elect their pastors from any denomination of christians. Two of their ministers in the early part of the 18th century were Presbyterians and members of the Charlestown Presbytery. These were the Rev. Messrs. Stobo and Livingston. On the demise of the latter, his successor was an Independent from New England. During his incumbency twelve families seceded and formed the Presbyterian church on the model of the church of Scotland.

name of the White Meeting.* They erected an additional house of worship in Archdale street, in which divine service was first performed in 1787. These two houses form one church, and have common interests and ministers, with equal salaries and privileges.

The Independents also have a church, near Dorchester,† supplied by the Rev. Mr. M'Kelhenny—in Christ church under the pastoral care of the Rev. Dr. M'Calla; on James Island under that of Mr. Price; in Beaufort under Mr. Palmer, and in St. Bartholomews at present vacant.

The Methodists made their first appearance as a religious society in South Carolina in the year 1785. For the last ten or fifteen years they have increased beyond any former exam-

* This building, after various enlargements, in the course of one hundred and fourteen years, was finally taken down in 1804; and the present church on a circular plan of 88 feet diameter was erected in its place. This form accommodates a greater number of people, at less expense, than any other; is easy to the speaker, and makes his voice more distinctly audible, especially at a distance. The building has already cost 60,000 dollars, and 14,000 more will be necessary to finish the steeple. One half of the gallery is laid off for the use of people of color, and accommodates about 400 decent, orderly, and steady worshippers of that description.

This church has had fifteen ministers.' The commencement and termination of their ministerial functions as far as is now known, was nearly as follows:

1. Rev. Benjamin Pierpoint settled about the year 1691, and died, it is supposed, in 1696 or '97. 2. Rev. Mr. Adams a very short time minister. 3. Rev. John Cotton, settled in the year 1698, and died 1699. 4. Rev. Archibald Stobo took charge of the church in the autumn of 1700, and resigned in 1704. 5. Rev. Wm. Livingston became pastor in 1704, and died after the year 1720. 6. Rev. Nathan Bassett settled in 1724, died of the small pox in 1738. 7. Rev. James Parker arrived in Charlestown in 1740, and died in 1742. 8. Rev. Josiah Smith took charge of the church in 1742, and resigned in 1750. 9. Rev. James Edmonds settled December 15, 1754, and resigned about 1767. 10. Rev. Wm. Hutson settled in connection with Mr. Edwards, 1757, and died in 1761. 11. Rev. Andrew Bennet was settled as pastor with Mr. Edmonds in 1762, and resigned in 1763. 12. Rev. Jno. Thomas was installed pastor of the church in 1767, and died at New York on the 29th of September, 1771. 13. The Rev. William Tennent entered on the pastoral charge of the church in 1772, and died at the high hills at Santee in August, 1777; from his death the church remained vacant till the termination of the revolutionary war. While the British were in possession of Charlestown, the building was used as a store-house by the conquerors. The pews were all destroyed and the house materially injured. 14. Rev. Dr. Hollinshead entered on the pastoral charge of the church in 1783, and is now living. 15. Rev. Dr. Keith, in connection with Dr. Hollinshead in 1787, and is now living.

Of these fifteen ministers the first, second, third, sixth, eighth, thirteenth, fourteenth and fifteenth, were Americans, and one of them, Rev. Josiah Smith, a Carolinian. The other seven were Europeans. Till the year 1730 the church was indiscriminately called Presbyterian Independent, or Congregational. After the separation which then took place between them and the Presbyterians it retained the appropriate name of Independent or Congregational Church, and was in common conversation sometimes called the New England Meeting, but oftener the White Meeting.

† This church was formed as early as the year 1696. It is the oldest without the limits of Charlestown. Its founders migrated in a body, with their minister the Rev. Joseph Lord, from Dorchester, in Massachusetts, and settled compactly together in a place to which they gave the name of their former abode. In 1752 they made a second migration to Medway, in Georgia, with their minister, the Rev. Joseph Osgood, who was so much beloved by his people, and had such influence over them, that on his recommendation they went off in a body. Their original church in Carolina lay in a ruined condition till 1794, when it was rebuilt and re-organized.

ple. They had been indefatigable in their labors, preaching abundantly* in the most remote settlements and where there had been no previous means of religious instructions. Their mode of performing divine service is calculated to keep up a high degree of fervor in the minds of their followers. Well knowing that all men have hearts to feel, though few have heads to reason, their address is for the most part to the passions and excites more of feeling than of reasoning. Their preachers, laboring under strong impressions, are very successful in communicating them to the breasts of their hearers. By a circulating mode of preaching they guard against that apathy and languor which is apt to result from long habits. New preachers successively addressing new congregations are roused to new and extraordinary exertions. Sympathetic feelings spread from one to the other; and frequently whole congregations are melted into tears, or transported with ecstacy breaking out in loud exclamations.†

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* Traveling Methodist preachers generally preach on six days of each week to six different congregations. No weather, however severe, prevents their punctual attendance agreeably to appointment. For this extraordinary labor they receive from the common fund only eighty dollars a year in addition to their traveling expenses. The interior economy of their connection is admirable, and shows the energetic mind of John Wesley. It is well calculated to secure the performance of much clerical duty at a very little expense, and is therefore peculiarly suited to the poor. Their society in South Carolina is divided into twelve circuits and stations; in which there are twenty-six traveling preachers who continue to ride daily, Monday excepted, two or three in each circuit, so that they preach one hundred and fifty-six sermons weekly, or eight thousand one hundred and twelve sermons in the year, besides attending night and other casual meetings. They commonly ride around a circuit in five or six weeks. Exclusive of the twenty-six traveling preachers there are in the State of South Carolina, about ninety-three local preachers, generally married men, who labor all the week and preach at an average each two sermons in each week, or nine thousand six hundred and seventy-two in one year. Thus there are annually preached by the Methodists seventeen thousand seven hundred and eighty-four sermons for $2,080; as the local preachers receive no salary or compensation for their labors. They have in South Carolina about two hundred churches or stations for preaching, which are constructed in so plain a style as to cost on an average about one hundred and thirty-five dollars each, or 27,000 for the whole. There are four Methodist churches in Charlestown; two of which are not in connection with the others. One of these (Trinity Church) is under the pastoral care of the Reverend Mr. Munds of the Protestant Episcopal Church; the other is vacant. The two which are in connection have their ministers changed according to the established routine. To these two belong forty heads of families, or about one hundred and seventy white persons, and fifteen hundred and twenty persons of color. The Methodists have abundantly more success in the woods, the swamps, the pine barrens, and all new and dispersed settlements than in populous cities where there are competent resident clergymen.

†Camp meetings which began in Kentucky, and parts adjacent, found their way into South Carolina about the year 1800. These were held in different places and different seasons, but oftenest in the autumn. They were attended by several thousands, many of whom came from considerable distances; and they usually kept together on the same ground from the Thursday of one week till the Tuesday of the next. The holy sacrament was always administered on the intervening Sunday, and to persons of different sects; who, forgetting all differences on minor subjects, chose to commune together. The bagging provided for the envelopment of their cotton was easily formed into tents for their temporary lodging. Huts made in a few hours and covered wagons answered the same purpose. The

To presume that nothing improper has ever occurred in their frequent, numerous and unseasonable meetings, would be contrary to the ordinary course of things; but that great good has resulted from the labors of the Methodists is evident to all who are acquainted with the state of the country before and since they commenced their evangelisms in Carolina. Drunkards have become sober and orderly—bruisers, bullies, and blackguards, meek, inoffensive and peaceable—profane

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farmers brought their families, provisions, and bedding, in wagons from their respective homes. They took their station where wood and water were of easy attainment, and in general fared well. From their stores they hospitably entertained strangers who came as visitors. Two, three, or four tents or stands for preaching were erected at such distances that divine service could be performed in each of them at the same time without any interference. From five to twelve or fifteen ministers of different denominations attended and with short intervals for refreshment and repose, kept up in different places a constant succession of religious exercises by night as well as by day. Besides the performance of divine service by the ministers in their respective tents, there were frequently subdivisions of the people at convenient distances, where praying, exhorting, and singing of psalms, was carried on by lay persons, and the whole so managed that they did not disturb each other. The auditors whose motive was curiosity, freely passed from one scene to another, and could in the space of a few minutes and the circuit of a few acres indulge their taste for variety. Others were more stationary and hung on the lips of their favorite preachers. Among these it was not at all uncommon for individuals, in consequence of something said in the sermon or prayers, to be seized all at once with the most dreadful apprehensions concerning the state of their souls, insomuch that many of them could not abstain from crying out in the most public manner, bewailing their lost and undone condition by nature, calling themselves "enemies to God and despisers of precious Christ;" declaring, "that they were unworthy to live on the face of the earth:" but the universal cry was "what shall we do to be saved?" The agony under which they labored was expressed not only by words, but also by violent agitations of the body, by clapping their hands, and beating their breasts—by shaking and trembling—by faintings and convulsions—and they remained sobbing, weeping, and often crying aloud till the service was over. Some who were subjects of these exercises did not consider themselves as converted persons, but most were supposed by themselves and others to have been converted in a few days, and sometimes in a few hours. In the latter case, they were raised up all at once from the lowest depth of sorrow and distress, to the highest pitch of joy and happiness; crying out with triumph and exultation "that they had overcome the wicked one, that they had gotten hold of Christ, and would never let him go." Under these delightful impressions some began to pray and exhort publicly, and others desired the congregation to join with them in singing a particular psalm. Many of the subjects of the preceding exercises while under their operation had no appetite for food nor inclination to sleep.

To what cause this memorable work ought to be ascribed, was a question which occasioned much debate and great diversity of opinion. Some ascribed it to the real efficacy of the doctrines of Christ and to the power of God which accompanied them: others to the influence of the devil, and many to the influence of fear and hope, of sympathy and example aided by peculiar circumstances. Many serious persons advocated the first opinion. These alleged that the fruits of this extraordinary work in the hearts and lives of men were such as might be expected from divine agency. The lives of the profane were reformed, harmony and peace succeeded strife and contention, families where religion had been disregarded, became temples in which God was daily worshipped. Persons who had been loose livers, formed themselves into societies which met frequently for prayer and religious conversation. With regard to the external effects by which this work manifested itself on the bodies of men, they acknowledged them to be uncommon but not singular. The scriptures furnish instances of similar effects of an awakened conscience, such as St. Paul at his conversion—the jailor at Philippi, and Felix who trembled as St. Paul reasoned of righteousness, temperance, and the judgment to come.

They who ascribed the work to the agency of the devil, were comparatively

swearers, decent in their conversation. In the cause of religion the Methodists are excellent pioneers and prepare the way for permanent moral improvement when the fervor of passion subsides into calm reflection and sober reason. They are particularly suited to the state of society in South Carolina, in which large tracts of poor land afford such a scanty return to its dispersed cultivators as to be incompetent to their own support, and also that of learned stationary clergymen. To multitudes of such persons the methodists have given religious instructions which they never enjoyed before, and among such they have produced a great diminution of

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few and consisted for the most part of profane scoffers at all that was serious, or of bigotted formal christians who denounced everything that did not accord with the religious routine to which they had been accustomed.

That the camp meetings were intended for good, and that they frequently issued in the reformation of several who attended them, was the general opinion of the candid, liberal and virtuous; but these at the same time acknowledged that much of the work, especially its effects on the body, were to be ascribed to the imperfections of agitated human nature—to the influence of strong passions—to the force of sympathy and example aided by peculiar circumstances. These alleged that the bodily agitations might be sufficiently explained by the operation of natural causes. The soul and body, they observed, are so intimately connected that they mutually sympathize with each other, and whatever gives pleasure or pain to the one, gives likewise pleasure or pain to the other. All the passions of the mind, especially those which are of a violent nature, discover themselves by some corresponding outward expression. When an event, whether joyful or sorrowful, is communicated in such an interesting manner as to affect our minds strongly, it will also affect our bodies in proportion. As this is the case with regard to such of men's concerns as are present and temporal, it is reasonable that it should also be the case with regard to such of them as are future and eternal. When they were deeply affected by the preaching of the gospel, their fears alarmed by the dread of everlasting punishment, and their hopes elevated by the assurance of pardon and the prospect of eternal happiness, it was natural that the feelings of their minds should discover themselves both by words and actions. The sermons preached on these occasions were addressed not so much to the understanding of the hearers as to their imaginations and especially to the passions of fear and hope.

The effects of these camp meetings were of a mixed nature. They were doubtless attended for improper purposes by a few licentious persons, and by others with a view of obtaining a handle to ridicule all religion. It is to be regretted that from the imperfection of human nature, truth with a little distortion and high coloring could be made in some respect to answer their purposes especially with those whose principles were unsettled. The free intercourse of so great a number of all ages and sexes under cover of the night and the woods was not without its temptations. It is also to be feared that they gave rise to false notions of religion by laying too much stress on bodily exercises and substituting them in place of moral virtues or inward purity. These were too often considered as evidences of a change of the heart and affections, though they neither proved nor disapproved anything of the kind. After every deduction is made on these several accounts, it must be acknowledged that the good resulting from these camp meetings greatly preponderated over the evil. They roused that indifference to the future destinies of man, which is too common, and gave rise to much serious thoughtfulness on subjects confessedly of the most interesting nature. The circumstances under which these impressions were excited were too violent to last long. Much of the extraordinary fervor which produced camp meetings has abated and they are seldomer held, and when held they are attended by smaller numbers than formerly. They are still kept up by the Methodists, but are deserted by most other denominations. More correct and rational ideas of religion are daily taking place. These influence the understanding more, and the body less than was common about the beginning of the 19th century in Carolina and the southern States, and about the year 1740 in New England, New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania and at Cambuslang and other places in Scotland.

gross immoralities. Similar zeal and activity have been displayed by the Baptists, and their labors have been followed with correspondent success in civilizing and evangelizing remote and destitute settlements.

Among the numerous emigrants to Carolina there were doubtless at all times several of the Roman Catholic persuasion, but they were not organized into a church till 1791. In that year a number of individuals of that communion, chiefly natives of Ireland, associated together for public worship—chose a vestry, and put themselves under the care of bishop Carrol, of Baltimore. The Reverend Doctor Keating officiated as their minister. The troubles in France and the West Indies soon brought a large accession to their number. Under the auspices of the learned and eloquent Doctor Gallaher they have built, organized and obtained incorporation for a respectable church in Charlestown. The orderly conduct and active co-operation of its members in all measures for the defence and good government of the country, proves that the apologies offered in justification of the restrictions imposed on them by the protestant governments of Europe are without foundation, or do not apply to the state of things in Carolina. The Quakers have a small church in Charlestown, and a considerable one near Bush river; but steady in their opposition to slavery, they are not numerous in a country where the greatest part of its most fertile soil cannot be advantageously cultivated otherwise than by negroes. In consequence of the late unrestrained importation of slaves, many of the Quakers have left Carolina in disgust, and settled in the State of Ohio, where slavery is prohibited. The encouragements given to settlers in Carolina have attracted people not only of different religions, but of different languages. Two of the latter, the French and the Dutch, have been continued in their respective religious societies.

Soon after the revocation of the edict of Nantz in 1685, great numbers of French protestants sought an asylum in Carolina. Most of them settled in the parishes of St. Dennis and St. James, on Santee, and to them in their ecclesiastical capacity were extended the privileges of established churches, with a permission to perform all their public religious exercises in the French language, provided they used Doctor Durel's translation of the book of common prayer. Those of them who settled in Charlestown formed a church about the beginning of the eighteenth century on the plan of the reformed churches in France.* It is rich in lands; but so

* The Lords proprietors in 1701, without consideration, conveyed to trustees for the use of the French Protestants in Charlestown, two lots in King street originally numbered 92 and 93. These were subdivided and leased in the year 1755 for fifty years, and are now valuable. In 1740 their church was burnt down and

many of the descendants of its original founders have joined other churches, that its present members are but few.

The German protestants associated in Charlestown for religious worship about the middle of the eighteenth century. They were at first accommodated with the use of the French church for several years. In the year 1759 they began to build a house of worship for themselves. This was consecrated in 1764 by the name of St. John's church, but was incorporated in 1783 by the name of the Lutheran church of German protestants. All its records prior to 1763 have been lost. Their first minister, the Reverend Mr. Luft, arrived in 1752. His successors were the Reverend Messrs. John George Frederic, John Nicholas Martin, John Severin Haumbaum, Frederic Daser, Christian Streit, John Christopher Faber, Matthew Frederic, Charles Faber; the last of whom is now in office. Of these the only native American was Christian Streit who officiated from 1778 to 1781, and first introduced divine service in the English language so as to have one service in English every second or third Sunday.

Besides their church in Charlestown, the German protestants have a church in Amelia township, two on Saluda river, two on Broad river, one at Beaver creek, and one at Salt Catchers; but with them as with the French, each succeeding generation is less anxious for perpetuating the language of their forefathers, and frequently join themselves to societies in which divine service is constantly performed in English.

The Jews, the oldest religion in the world, enjoy rights in Carolina which have been denied to them for many centuries in the greatest part of Europe. Equally interested in the welfare of the country, they are equally zealous for its defence and good government. They have had a synagogue in Charlestown for more than half a century. Their whole number in South Carolina is about seven hundred.

By the constitution of South Carolina not only all the sects which have been mentioned, but those individuals who keep aloof from all religious societies enjoy equal protection for life, liberty and property. The government is administered on the idea that the constituted authorities have nothing to do with religion; this being an affair between man and his Creator—that the proper business of magistrates is to provide for the

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all their records consumed. It was again destroyed in the great fire of 1796, but was afterwards rebuilt in 1799. In consequence of these misfortunes little of their early history is known. As far as can be recollected their ministers were as follows: Rev. Mr. Boisseau in 1712; Rev. Francis Guichard from 1722 to 1753; the Rev. John Peter Tetard from 1753 to 1759; the Rev. Bartholomew Henry Himeli from 1759 to 1773. After an absence of twelve years he was re-elected minister in 1785. Since that period, the Rev. Messrs. Peter Levrier, LaCoste, Boardillon and Detargny have in succession served as ministers of the church: but it is now vacant.

civil order and happiness of the whole community, while individuals and sects have unrestrained liberty to adjust the articles of their belief and their religious concerns in any mode most agreeable to themselves.

The emoluments of the clergy in Carolina may terminate with their services, but always do so with their lives. Even while they live their income is far short of what the same talents, education, and industry generally command in the other learned professions. To compensate for these sacrifices, to provide for the clergy when elderly or disabled, and for their widows and orphans, several societies have been instituted and fostered by the liberality of the people. The eldest is for the relief of the widows and orphans of the clergy of the Protestant Episcopal Church in South Carolina. This was instituted in 1762, and incorporated in 1786. It began with eleven members, all clergymen. Lay members were first admitted in 1770. There are now eight clerical members, and sixty-five of the laity, all of whom pay ten dollars per annum. The society possesses efficient funds to the amount of $26,000, and an annual income of $2,800, which exceeds its present annual expenses. This surplus is laid out in stock, so that the funds and income of the society increase considerably every year.

The next in order is entitled "the Society for the benefit of elderly, or disabled Ministers, and of the Widows and Orphans of the Clergy of the Independent or Congregational Church in the State of South Carolina." This was established in 1789, and soon after incorporated. It consists of forty-seven members, each of whom pays annually one pound sterling. Of these only three are clergymen. Its capital exceeds $29,000, and its annual income is about $2,000 more than its present annual expenditures. The surplus from time to time is added to the capital, and will soon constitute a respectable sum.

The Presbytery of Charlestown is a corporation for raising a fund for the relief of the widows and orphans of their society. This was constituted in 1790, and possesses a capital of $2,645. These and similar institutions indirectly foster religion and learning, for they take away from the discouragements of a worldly nature, which deter men of forecast from engaging in theological studies or entering on clerical functions.

The methodists manage these matters on a general system, and in a way peculiar to themselves. Their worn-out superannuated and supernumerary ministers, the wives and widows of all ministers, draw a salary from a common fund equal to that of a traveling preacher. The children of all their preach-

ers are each allowed sixteen dollars a year till they are seven years of age, and twenty-four dollars after that period till they are fourteen years old. In this manner their preachers are absolved from distressing anxiety about the future support of their families; for nearly the same provision is made for them after the death of their parents as before.

In addition to these modes, voluntarily adopted by different religious societies in Carolina for the support of the families of deceased clergymen, several of the old churches have funds in lands, negroes, or monies, at interest, which assist in the support of officiating ministers. These institutions are of early origin, and of great utility. By discouraging unnecessary separations they cement the union and preserve the perpetuity of congregations, while they lighten the burdens of supporting preachers. It is to be wished that they were multiplied and carried to an extent sufficient to pay all church expenses. This has been done in Edisto Island, and might be done, with proper exertions, in every district. The present heavy rents on pews might then be done away, and churches made as accessible to the poor as the rich. This policy originated upwards of one hundred years ago, and was found very useful. The revolutionary paper money materially injured the system, but it may now be resumed with increasing advantage; for the future existence of paper money is constitutionally prohibited, and the privileges of incorporation, then unattainable by dissenters, are at present either possessed, or may on application be easily obtained, by every religious society.

Though the different sects in Charlestown have been long separated from each other by distinct religious property, and different modes of worship, yet in one instance there is a communion of all Christians highly honorable to human nature. It often happened that persons, whose daily wants were supplied by their daily labor, departed this life, leaving helpless orphans without any prospect of education, and often without the means of support. Instances of this became so numerous as to require a systematic arrangement for their accommodation. The business was taken up with ardor. By donations of individuals, and appropriations from the city treasury, a spacious building, called the Orphan House, was erected at the close of the eighteenth century, in which about one hundred and thirty orphans are successively fed and clothed. They also receive the rudiments of a plain education. One thing was wanting: no means had been provided for their religious instruction. The bounty of individuals and of the public soon added a church for the performance of divine service for their benefit, and of such of the inhabitants as chose to attend with them. The clergy of all denominations of Christians,

with the consent of their respective congregations, concurred in performing divine service, in a routine fixed by the managers of the institution. Thus a free church was instituted, in which the gospel was preached without expense, not only to the orphans but to all who chose to attend. It is remarkable that in the various services which have been performed by the clergy of different sects of Christians, nothing has been at any time introduced savoring of the peculiarities of sect or party. The truths of the gospel in which all Christians are agreed, and the principles of morality sanctioned by universal consent, have been the only topics brought forward. The astonished hearers, consisting of Jews and Gentiles, Catholics and Protestants, Christians and Infidels, found that all religions tended to make men better, and that good men of all denominations substantially meant the same thing. They wondered at the contentions of Christians, for they perceived that they all agreed on matters of the greatest moment, and only differed on subjects of minor importance. From charity in giving, an unexpected transition was made to charity in thinking. When they intended nothing more than to relieve the necessities of the fatherless, they found their minds gradually cleared from that narrowness of thinking, which leads bigots of all descriptions to suppose themselves exclusively right, and all others wrong. Their minds expanded with good will and charity to their fellow-citizens, though differing from them in modes and forms.

These are some of the good consequences which have resulted in Charlestown from the establishment of a charitable institution on a broad basis; and still more extensively over the whole State, from placing all religious denominations on an equal footing, without discrimination or preference.

Though real religion is always the same, yet there is a fashion in its modes varying with times and circumstances, which is worthy of historical notice. For the first thirty-five or forty years after the settlement of South Carolina, there was a constant jarring between the puritans and cavaliers, or the dissenters and high churchmen. The former brought with them from England much of the severity and strictness of their party, the latter an equal proportion of that levity and sprightliness which was fashionable in England after the restoration of Charles the Second to the throne of his ancestors. The former dreaded conformity to the fashionable world, even in matters of indifference, as a great abomination; the latter had an equal horror of hypocrisy, and to avoid the appearance of it went to the opposite extreme.

In the next seventy years in which the Church of England was established, both parties relaxed. The sufferings of dis-

senters under the rigorous establishments of Europe were unknown in Carolina. The moderation of the established church was great—the toleration of the dissenters was complete. Except the patronage from government, and support from the public treasury, the civil rights and privileges of both were nearly equal. The former were too apt to look down with contempt on the latter, as an inferior grade of beings, but abstained from all private acts of injury or oppression. The one gradually abated of their haughtiness, the other of their scrupulosity. Fashion induced several prosperous individuals among the dissenters to join the established church. The American revolution leveled all legal distinctions, diminished prejudices, and brought both into a nearer connection with each other. Marriages between persons of different denominations became more common and excited less wonder. Fashion no longer led exclusively to one church. The name of meeting-house and the ridicule attached to those who frequented them were done away. The difference now is more in name than reality. The peculiarities, formerly characteristic of each, have been so far dropped that there is no longer any other obvious mark of distinction than that which results from their different modes of performing divine service.

Among the Carolinians deism was never common. Its inhabitants at all times generally believed that a Christian church was the best temple of reason. Persons professing arian or socinian doctrines, or that system of religion which has been denominated universalism, are so very few that they form no separate religious societies. The only church in which these doctrines were publicly professed has long been completely extinct. The bulk of the people who make an open profession of any religion are either Baptists, Catholics, Episcopalians, Independents, Methodists, Protestants of the German or French reformed churches, Presbyterians, or Seceders. All these agree in the following doctrines, which have a direct tendency to advance the best interests of society and the peace and happiness of its members.

There is a God and a future state of rewards and punishments.

God is to be publicly worshipped.

The holy scriptures of the Old and New Testament are the word of God.

The present state of man is a state of sin and misery.

Jesus Christ is the Son of God, and the Saviour of the world.

There will be a resurrection of the dead, and a general judgment, in which retribution will be made to every individual of the human race according to his works.

But these sects differ in matters respecting church politics,

some preferring the government of one, others that of a few or of the many; by bishops, presbyteries, associations, the whole body of the people, or by vestries, elders, or select portions of them. While all agree that ministers or public teachers of religion are of divine appointment, some contend for a distinction of ranks, and others for a parity among them. The former are subdivided; some considering an uninterrupted succession from the apostles to be necessary—others that ordination derived from John Wesley, or his successors, is as valid as that from St. Paul or any of the Apostles. In addition to these acknowledged legitimate sources of ordination, the other sects contend that three or more ordained ministers are fully competent to the work of ordination, and that all ordained ministers are of equal grade in the church.

All agree that public prayers to the Deity are of divine institution; but some prefer prayers by form, others in an extempore manner.

All agree that baptism is a divine ordinance, and that it may be rightly administered when adults are its subjects and immersion the mode. Others add that it may also be rightly administered when the children of believers are its subjects and sprinkling the mode. Among professors who agree in so many fundamental points embracing the substance of Christianity, and differ only in matters relating to its husk and shell or necessary appendages, there is an ample foundation for a friendly understanding and a liberal exchange of all the kind offices of reciprocal church fellowship; while there is no real cause for treating each other with shyness or cold indifference.

MEDICAL HISTORY OF SOUTH CAROLINA,

FROM 1670 TO 1808.

South Carolina lies between the 32d and 35th degrees of north latitude, and in the same parallel with Cyprus, Candia, Morocco, Barbary, Damascus, Tripoli, Palmyra, Babylon, and other parts of Turkey in Asia, and with parts of Persia, India, and China. In comparing American climates with those of Europe, to bring them on a par with each other, a difference of 12 degrees should be allowed for peculiarities in the American continent. The most remarkable of these is such a predominance of cold as subjects an American, living in north latitude 35 to an equal degree of cold with an European residing

in north latitude 47.* If this opinion is correct we should look for a resemblance of South Carolina, not in the countries which have been mentioned as lying in the same latitude, but in Aix, Rochelle, Montpelier, Lyons, Bordeaux, and other parts of France; in Milan, Turin, Padua, Genoa, Parma, Mantua, and other parts of Italy; in Buda, Benda, Crimea, and other parts of Turkey in Europe; in Circassia, Astracan, and other parts of Russian Tartary, and of Chinese Tartary, which lie between the 44th and 47th degrees of north latitude. It is certain that the points of resemblance are more numerous in the latter than the former case.

The climate of South Carolina is in a medium between that of tropical countries and of cold temperate latitudes. It resembles the former in the degree and duration of its summer heat, and the latter in its variableness. In tropical countries the warmest and coldest days do not in the course of a twelvemonth vary more, from each other, than sixteen degrees of Farenheit's thermometer. There is consequently but little distinction between their summer and winter; but a variation of 83 degrees between the heat and cold of different days of the same year, and of 46 degrees in the different hours of the same day in South Carolina is to be found in its historical records.

Since 1791, the difference between our coolest and warmest summers has ranged between 88 and 93, and the difference between our mildest and coldest winters has ranged on a few particular days from 50 to 17.† Our greatest heat is sometimes less and never much more than what takes place in the same season in Baltimore, Philadelphia, and New York; but the warm weather in these places does not on an average continue above six weeks, while in Carolina it lasts from three to four months. Our nights are also warmer than theirs. The heat of the days in Charlestown is moderated by two causes, which do not exist in an equal degree to the northward of it. Our situation open and near the sea, almost surrounded by water and not far distant from the torrid zone, gives us a small proportion of the trade winds which, blowing from the southeast, are pleasantly cool. These generally set in about 10 A. M., and continue for the remainder of the day. A second

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* If the meteorological observations which have been made at Williamsburg, Cambridge, Quebec, and Hudson's bay, in America, be compared with those which have been made at Algiers, Rome, Poictiers, and Solyskamski, places whose latitudes are nearly equal, it will be found that the European continent is now twelve degrees warmer than that of America.—*Williams' Vermont, p.* 384.

† Farenheit's thermometer is what is every where meant in this publication: and the observations on it therein referred to, unless otherwise specified, were reported to the medical society, as taken by Dr. Robert Wilson at his house, the west end of Broad-street, at the hours of 8 in the morning, between 2 and 3 in the afternoon, and at 10 in the evening. The instrument was suspended in an open passage about ten feet from the floor.

reason may be assigned from the almost daily showers of rain which fall in the hottest of our summer months, and are frequently accompanied with much thunder and lightning, and therefore are called thunder showers.

The degree of heat in Charlestown is considerably less than in the interior western country. In the summer of 1808, at Columbia, it was frequently at 96 and 97, and sometimes at 98; while at Charlestown it did not exceed 91.

The number of extreme warm days in Charlestown is seldom above thirty in a year; and it is rare for three of these to follow each other. On the other hand, eight months out of twelve are moderate and pleasant. The number of piercing cold days in winter is more in proportion to our latitude than of those which are distressingly hot in summer: but of these more than three rarely come together. There are on an average in Charlestown about twenty nights, in a twelvemonth, in which the closeness and sultriness of the air forbid in a great measure the refreshment of sound sleep; but this severe weather is for the most part soon terminated by refreshing and cooling showers. April, May, and June, are in common our healthiest months, with the exception of the cholera infantum and bowel diseases among children. August and September are the most sickly; April and May the driest; June, July, and August the wettest; November the pleasantest. Our old people are oftenest carried off in cold weather; the young, the intemperate, and the laboring part of the community, when it is hot. In some years January, and in others February is the coldest month. It is remarkable that when orange trees have been destroyed by frost, it has always been in the month of February. It is also remarkable that oranges, though plentiful forty or fifty years ago, are now raised with difficulty. Once in every eight or ten years a severe winter destroys the trees on which they grow. Of this kind were the winters of 1776, 1779, 1786, and 1796. The transitions from heat to cold have in the same period been great and rapid. Mr. John Champneys has observed on three different occasions the thermometer fall more than fifty degrees in less than fifteen hours. The coldest days on record are December 23d and 24th, 1796. In both of which the thermometer in doctor Wilson's house fell to seventeen. These changes, probably the effect of the country being more opened and cleared, discourage the hope of naturalizing tropical fruits. November and December are the best months in the year for strangers to arrive in Carolina. Such should calculate so as not to make their first appearance either in summer or in the face of it, or in the first months of autumn. The hottest day of the year is sometimes as early as June, sometimes as late as September, but oftenest in July

or August. The hottest hour of the day in Charlestown varies with the weather; it is sometimes as early as ten in the forenoon, but most commonly between two and three in the afternoon.

In the spring when the sun begins to be powerful, a langour and drowsiness is generally felt; respiration is accelerated, and the pulse becomes quicker and softer. Strangers are apt to be alarmed at these feelings and anticipate an increase of them with the increasing heat of the season, but they find themselves agreeably disappointed. The human frame so readily accommodates itself to its situation that the heat of June and July is to most people less distressing* than the comparatively milder weather of April and May. On the the other hand, though September is cooler than the preceding months, it is more sickly and the heat of it more oppressive. Perspiration is diminished and frequently interrupted: hence the system, debilitated by the severe weather of July and August, feels more sensibly and more frequently a sense of lassitude. Besides the coolness of the evenings in September and the heavy dews that then fall, multiply the chances of getting cold. It is on the whole the most disagreeable month in the year.

In winter the mountains near the western boundary of the State are often covered with snow. From thence to the sea shore snow but seldom falls so as to cover the ground except on extraordinary occasions.† The soil is sometimes in like manner bound up with frost. This seldom extends into the ground more than two inches. In shady places it will not thaw for several days; and the waters and ponds at the same time are generally frozen, but seldom more than half an inch thick, and rarely strong enough to give an opportunity for the wholesome exercise of skating. This freezing lasts only for a few days, and the weather breaks up mild and warm so as to render fires unnecessary in the middle of the day. In the winter these changes from heat to cold, and the reverse, fre-

* On the 3d of July, 1806, Doctor Harris suspended a thermometer six feet above the surface, exposed to the full influence of the sun. The mercury rose under these circumstances to 131 degrees, though it stood at 90 within doors. On his placing its bulb in his mouth it fell to 98. As it frequently rises to 90 in the shade, and stands so for some hours, the inhabitants of Charlestown then out of doors exposed to the sun are breathing an atmosphere heated to 131 degrees, or 33 degrees more than the heat of the human body; and it is supported by them without any manifest injury.

† On December 31, 1790, wind N. E. a severe snow storm began in Charlestown which continued for twelve hours. In consequence of which the streets were covered with snow from two to four inches deep. Another took place on the 28th of February, 1792, wind N. W. which continued for several hours, and till it covered the ground five or six inches. Similar snow storms fell in January 1800, and were thrice repeated in twenty-three days, and amounted in the whole to more than ten inches. But these phœnomena are rare.

quently and suddenly take place, and affect the feelings of the inhabitants much more than equal, or even greater degrees of permanent cold in countries where the climate is more steady, and the transitions from heat to cold are more gradual.

In February the weather is particularly variable. It is often rainy. Vegetation commences in warm clear days and inspires hopes of an early spring. Suddenly a northwest wind inducing frost, sometimes blasts and always retards these flattering expectations. In March and April the planting season begins and continues till June.

In July and August the heats increase, and the heavy rains set in attended at times with severe thunder and lightning. September is the principal month of harvest. In it the evenings and mornings are chilly, but the sun is extremely oppressive in the middle of the day. Storms of rain are produced, accompanied sometimes with hurricanes. The leaves of deciduous trees begin to fall, and nature by degrees assume the sober dress of winter. In October the weather is generally mild and clear. About the middle of this month frosts commence and generally terminate in the month of March. On their approach they bring with them a cure for fevers, then usually prevalent. The inhabitants of Charlestown keep fires in their houses from four to six months in the year; but there are some warm days in every one of them in which fires are disagreeable. On the other hand there are some moist cool days in every month of the year, with the exception of July and August, in which fires are not only healthy but pleasant. These, with the addition of June, are the only months which are exempt from frost in all years, and in every part of South Carolina.

Sharp cold weather seldom commences before December, though there are several cold days in November, and the evenings and mornings are generally so. In these months, especially the last, vegetation is checked and continues so for about four weeks. In this manner the annual circle revolves in the varying climate of South Carolina. The last half of December and the first half of January is the dullest period of the whole. If the year was to be regulated with a particular reference to Carolina, it might be said to commence about the middle of January, and to terminate about the middle of December; for the one begins and the other ends its visible natural vegetation.

The hygrometer in Charlestown shows an almost constant humidity in the air. For the last seven years it has not marked in any one year more than 24 dry days; and the average of the whole seven years is less than sixteen dry days for each. The variation of the barometer is inconsiderable. It gener-

ally stands between 30 and 31, but has been as low as 29° 7′ and as high as 31° 8′. The extremes of heat and cold since 1791 have been seventy-six degrees asunder. The subjoined statement* of meterological observations for the year 1802 may serve as a sample of the climate.

The evils that every year take place more or less in the northern States from drinking cold water, are unknown in Charlestown. The water of the wells lies so near the surface of the earth that the difference of its temperature from that of the common air, is not so great as to create danger; unless in very particular circumstances. A solitary case occurred in September, 1791, of a negro fellow who after taking a draught of cold water when very warm, suddenly fainted away and immediately after became insane and continued so for several days; but he afterwards recovered. The medium temperature of the well water in Charlestown is 65°. This is twelve degrees above that of the well-water of Philadelphia.

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* Thunder was distinctly, and in few cases very loudly heard on forty-eight days in the interval between April 7, and November 30. Less rain fell in 1802 than in any of the seven preceding years. The particulars will appear from the following table.

1802.	Days of rain.	Inches.	Tenths.	1802.	Days of rain.	Inches	Tenths.
January,	2	0	4	July,	14	12	1
February,	4	0	8	August,	10	4	9½
March,	2	0	8	September,	5	5	8½
April.	3	2	0	October,	3	0	2
May,	7	3	0	November,	1	2	4
June,	7	3	4	December,	6	3	2
	25	8	24		39	26	27

Though there were only sixty-four days in which an actual fall of rain took place, yet the index of the hygrometer pointed to damp in all degrees from one to one hundred and one, for three hundred and fifty-two days. As far as we can rely on this instrument we must admit that there were only thirteen days of a dry atmosphere in the year 1802; these were, in April 2, May 8, June 1, and November 3. The highest degree of dryness pointed out in these days was fifteen.

The direction of the winds for the year 1802 may be learnt from the following table.

	Winds.	Days.	Winds.	Days.		Winds.	Days.	Winds.	Days.
January,	S. to N. W.	17	N. to S. E.	14	July,	S. to N. W.	21	N. to S. E.	10
February,	"	15	"	13	August,	"	16	"	15
March,	"	20	"	11	September,	"	18	"	12
April,	"	22	"	8	October,	"	8	"	23
May,	"	26	"	5	November,	"	14	"	16
June,	"	18	"	12	December,	"	17	"	11

The latest frost in the spring of 1802 was March the 15th; the earliest in autumn was October 26th, or rather November 1st. The coldest day was February 23d. Thermometer 32. The next coldest day was December 9th, thermometer 33. The greatest and least degrees of heat in each month was as follows:

	Greatest.	Least.		Greatest.	Least.
January,	74	45	July,	87	70
February,	69	32	August,	89	72
March,	74	44	September,	89	60
April,	86	61	October,	81	54
May,	84	66	November,	74	45
June,	86	72	December,	70	33

The following table in which the days are classed, will show the number of warm days in the respective months, in the year 1802, and the degree of heat in each day; but without fractions. The first column states the highest range of

Instead of sudden deaths from cold water in Charlestown, the inhabitants have to lament the same event from the intemperate use of spirituous liquors. The stimulus of ardent

the thermometer in the whole course of the days opposite thereto in the other columns.

JANUARY.						FEBRUARY.						MARCH.						APRIL.					
Ther.	Days.					Ther.	Days.					Ther.	Days.					Ther.	Days.				
74	29	...	...	...	...	69	11	...	...	...	...	74	30	...	...	...	...	86	26	...	...	...	...
72	28	...	...	...	...	68	8	...	...	...	...	72	10	19	25	30	...	80	4	14	...	...	...
70	27	...	...	...	...	67	3	16	1	...	...	71	18	..	...	...	...	79	3	...	...	...	...
68	3	9	...	...	...	66	21	...	...	...	...	70	17	20	...	...	...	78	30	...	...	...	...
67	16	21	...	...	...	65	4	14	15	...	...	69	3	24	...	...	...	77	2	10	25	...	...
66	4	8	15	30	...	64	9	10	26	...	...	67	9	26	29	...	...	...	7	13	18	...	...
65	2	7	...	...	...	63	12	18	...	...	...	66	1	16	...	...	...	76	22	29	...	...	...
62	14	17	...	...	...	62	7	22	...	...	...	65	13	23	...	...	...	75	9	...	...	...	...
60	15	19	...	...	...	61	13	...	...	...	...	63	2	6	...	...	...	74	1	8	12	19	27
59	18	...	...	...	...	60	1	28	25	...	...	61	28	...	...	...	...	73	...	21	...	6	...
58	11	23	...	...	...	59	27	...	...	...	...	60	15	21	22	...	...	71	...	28	...	6	...
57	20	6	...	...	...	58	20	2	...	...	...	...	12	5	...	...	...	70	...	17	...	24	...
56	1	22	24	...	...	55	24	...	...	...	...	59	4	...	...	...	...	69	...	23	...	...	...
55	26	13	...	...	...	53	5	6	...	...	...	58	11	...	...	...	...	68	...	11	...	...	...
54	25	12	10	...	...	48	19	...	...	...	...	57	7	...	...	...	...	67	...	16	...	...	...
51	5	31	...	...	...	45	23	...	...	...	...	55	8	27	...	...	...	66	...	5	...	...	...
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	54	14	...	...	...	...	65	...	20	...	...	...

MAY.						JUNE.						JULY.						AUGUST.					
Ther.	Days.					Ther.	Days.					Ther.	Days.					Ther.	Days.				
84	6	...	...	...	...	86	22	23	...	...	...	87	...	9	...	...	...	89	26	...	...	...	...
83	10	...	...	...	...	85	13	14	...	...	...	86	...	8	...	...	...	88	27	...	...	...	...
82	5	...	...	...	...	84	24	...	...	...	...	...	...	10	18	21	...	87	25	...	...	...	...
81	26	...	...	...	...	83	3	30	...	...	...	85	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
80	11	22	28	...	...	82	11	12	17	...	...	...	...	22	30	...	...	86	29	...	...	...	...
79	25	9	27	...	...	...	20	21	...	...	...	84	4	6	7	19	31	85	2	28	24	...	...
78	12	13	15	21	...	81	10	6	...	...	...	83	20	23	29	...	27	84	30	...	...	...	...
77	24	29	...	...	...	...	2	8	9	15	...	82	1	2	3	5	...	83	1	20	31	...	...
...	...	...	...	...	...	80	...	...	...	...	...	81	24	16	17	...	...	...	7	8	12	13	17
76	23	30	...	...	...	...	16	25	28	...	...	80	11	26	28	25	...	82	18	21	22	23	..
75	4	31	...	...	...	79	7	18	19	...	...	78	...	15	12	...	...	81	3	9	11	16	...
74	16	19	...	...	...	78	29	...	...	...	...	76	...	14	...	...	...	80	6	19	...	...	...
73	8	14	20	...	...	77	5	26	27	...	...	72	...	13	...	...	...	79	15	...	...	...	...
72	1	18	3	...	...	76	1	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	78	4	5	14	...	...
71	7	17	...	...	...	74	4	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	77	10	...	...	...	...
69	2	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...

SEPTEMBER.						OCTOBER.						NOVEMBER.						DECEMBER.					
Ther.	Days.					Ther.	Days.					Ther.	Days.					Ther.	Days.				
89	14	15	...	...	...	81	16	...	...	...	...	74	26	...	...	...	...	70	27	28	...	...	...
88	7	13	...	...	...	...	13	14	17	...	...	73	24	...	...	...	...	68	23	...	...	...	...
87	11	16	...	...	...	80	...	...	...	...	...	70	16	22	24	...	...	65	5	29	...	...	...
86	2	10	17	...	...	...	22	23	...	...	...	67	7	21	11	30	...	64	21	22	26	...	...
85	4	12	18	19	...	79	15	18	...	...	...	66	10	17	...	...	...	62	14	...	...	...	...
84	1	...	...	...	...	78	9	11	19	...	...	65	19	20	23	15	...	60	15	...	...	...	...
83	20	21	...	...	...	77	6	12	21	...	...	64	13	12	8	...	...	58	20	24	30	...	...
81	22	...	...	...	...	76	5	...	...	...	...	62	14	...	...	...	...	57	12	4	...	...	...
80	3	8	9	...	...	75	10	7	8	...	...	61	9	29	...	...	...	55	3	...	...	...	...
79	5	...	...	...	...	73	4	...	...	...	...	59	3	18	...	...	...	54	6	1	...	...	...
78	6	...	...	...	...	72	3	...	...	...	...	57	5	6	...	...	...	53	11	25	...	...	...
75	23	...	...	...	...	71	2	20	31	...	...	56	2	27	...	...	...	50	2	31	...	...	...
71	28	...	...	...	...	70	26	27	...	...	...	55	4	...	...	...	...	49	13	...	...	...	...
68	31	...	...	...	...	69	1	...	...	...	...	54	28	...	...	...	...	48	16	19	...	...	...
67	25	26	29	...	...	67	24	30	...	...	...	50	1	...	...	...	...	46	7	...	...	...	...
66	27	...	...	...	...	66	25	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	45	10	...	...	...	...
65	24	...	...	...	...	64	29	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	44	8	...	...	...	...
...	...	...	...	...	...	63	28	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	42	17	...	...	...	...
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	40	9	...	...	...	...
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	39	18	...	...	...	...

spirits added to that of excessive heat, drives the blood forcibly on the brain and produces fatal consequences.

The east and northeast winds in winter and spring are very injurious to invalids, especially to those who have weak lungs or who are troubled with rheumatic complaints. In these seasons they bring with them that languor for which they are remarkable in other countries; but in summer, by moderating heat they are both pleasant and wholesome. Their worst effects are to produce catarrhal complaints and colds. Winds from the northwest to the southwest, blowing over large tracts of marsh or swamp, are, in summer season, unfriendly to health. The north and northwest winds in winter, are remarkable for their invigorating effects on the human frame. South winds are healthy in summer, but much less so in winter.

Snow is more common and continues longer in proportion as we recede from the sea-shore. The further we proceed westward till we reach the mountains which divide the western from the eastern waters, the weather is colder in the winter and vegetation later in the spring. In the western parts of the State the days are warmer and the nights are cooler than on the sea-coast. While the inhabitants of Charlestown can scarcely bear to be covered in the hours of sleep with a sheet, they who live in the town of Columbia, one hundred and twenty computed miles, but probably about one hundred in a straight line, to the northwest of it, are not incommoded by a blanket: and this difference is greater as we advance more to the west.

The sum total of rain on an average of five years, viz: from 1738 to 1742 as observed by Dr. Lining, was 48.6 inches in the year; and of ten years, viz: from 1750 to 1759, as observed by Dr. Chalmers, was 41.75 inches in the year. The annual average quantity by the observations of the medical society for the last ten years, or from 1797 to 1807 was 49.3 inches. The greatest quantity in any one of these last ten years was 83.4 inches; this was in the year 1799: and the least was 38.6 in the year 1800. The greatest quantity in any one month of these ten years was 12.9 inches; this was in August 1799. In the course of these ten years, four months passed without any rain, and several in each of which it was less than one inch. The number of rainy days in the last five years, or from 1802 to 1807, gives an average of seventy-two rainy days for each.

South Carolina extends about 200 miles on the sea-coast, and about 300 to the west. The southern boundary and a great part of the northern, runs northwest from the Atlantic ocean. As the air grows colder in a western as well as a

northern direction, the climate is far from being uniform. The western districts, from their high and dry situation and contiguity to the mountains, enjoy a dry, elastic, wholesome atmosphere. The middle country partakes of the advantages of the upper country, and the disadvantages of the lower. The latter being intersected by swamps, bays, and low grounds, the waters spread over the face of the country, and in consequence of heat and stagnation produce mephitic exhalations. Thick fogs cover the low lands throughout the night during the summer months. In the western districts from August until frost, thick fogs also cover the grounds at night, but are dissipated by the rays of the sun. Much exposure to these fogs early in the morning is said to occasion intermittents.

In such a situation it is no matter of surprise that fevers prevail in places contiguous to fresh, and especially stagnant water. The heavy rains generally commence in June and July. While they flow, and until their waters by remaining stagnant have putrefied, the health of the lower country is not particularly affected. But when weeds and vegetables are rankest, and putrefaction is excited by the operations of heat and moisture, the atmosphere becomes deleterious. Like effects being produced by the same causes in Georgia and East Florida, winds from these countries in autumn are much charged with mephitic qualities. Hence south-westardly winds increase all summer fevers. These exciting causes of disease lie dormant in the native state of new countries, while they are undisturbed by cultivation; but when the ground is cleared and its surface broken they are put into immediate activity. Hence it has happened that the upper country of South Carolina was more healthy at its first settlement than it was some time after. When the putrescent materials are expended and the original mephitic effluvia are exhausted and cultivation has improved the face of the earth, it again becomes healthy. Very little if any of South Carolina has attained to this state. The upper country is approximating, and the high hills of Santee come nearer to it than any part of the middle or low country. In like manner mill-dams, when first erected and for many years after, are injurious to the health of the vicinity; but when the timber in them is rotted and their poisonous effluvia are dissipated, they become comparatively harmless.

Observations on the climate of South Carolina have not been made sufficiently long to test by satisfactory evidence any considerable changes which have already taken place. Those made by the Medical Society since 1791, compared with those made by Dr. Lining between 1738 and 1742, and with those made by Doctor Lionel Chalmers between 1750

and 1759, seem to prove that the climate in the last seventy years has changed for the better.* The heat of our late summers has abated eight degrees. Whether this is really the case, or to be referred to a difference of instruments or of sit-

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* The reader is desired to judge for himself whether he has experienced anything comparable to the account of Charlestown given by Doctors Lining and Chalmers who were eminent physicians and practiced physic for many years in Charlestown. The observations of the former were read before the royal society in May 1748; extracts from them are as follows: "In summer the heat of the shaded air about two or three in the afternoon is frequently between 90 and 95 degrees; and on the 14th, 15th, and 16th of June 1738, at 3 P. M. it was 98; a heat equal to the greatest heat of the human body in health." "In June 1738, when the heat of the shaded air was 98, the thermometer sunk one degree in my arm-pits, but continued at 98 in my hand and mouth. Two men who were then in the streets (when the heat was probably 124 or 126 degrees, as the shaded air's heat was then 98) dropped suddenly dead, and several slaves in the country at work in the rice fields shared the same fate. I saw one of the men immediately after he died; his face, neck, breast, and hands were livid." The following extracts are taken from the sixteenth to the twenty-third page of Doctor Chalmers' account of the weather and diseases of South Carolina which was printed in London in 1776, and chiefly refer to a period about the middle of the eighteenth century.

"I cannot convey a better idea of the heat we perceive in passing along the streets at noon in summer, than by comparing it to that glow which strikes one who looks into a pretty warm oven; for it is so increased by reflection from the houses and sandy streets as to raise the mercury sometimes to the 130th division of the thermometer, when the temperature of the shaded air may not exceed the 94th. Solid bodies, more especially metals, absorb so much heat at such times that one cannot lay his hand on them but for a short time without being made very uneasy. Nay, I have seen a beef-steak of the common thickness so deprived of its juices when laid on a cannon for the space of twenty minutes as to be overdone according to the usual way of speaking.

"In order to know what degree of heat my servants were exposed to in the kitchen, I suspended a thermometer to a beam eight feet from the floor, and fifteen from the fire, the windows and doors being all open on both sides of the house so that this was the coolest station in it. But even here the mercury stood at the 115th division, and notwithstanding this seeming distress, the negroes assured me they preferred this sort of weather to the winter's cold.

"By the 13th of July 1752, a general draught prevailed; for the earth was so parched and dry that not the least perspiration appeared on plants, which shrunk and withered. All standing waters were dried up as were many wells and springs, so that travelers could not find water either for themselves or their beasts for a whole day together. In several settlements no water could be found by digging ever so deep, for which reason the inclosures were laid open and the cattle drove out to shift for themselves. But very many of them perished for want both of pasturage and water, as probably did great numbers of those birds that require drink, for none of them were to be seen among us. In short, the distresses of men and beasts at that time are not to be described.

"When the mercury rose to the 97th and 98th degree of the thermometer in the shade, the atmosphere seemed in a glow. At bed time it was not in our power to lie long still, being obliged to turn almost incessantly in order to cool the side we rested on before. Refreshing sleep therefore was a stranger to our eyes, insomuch that people were in a manner worn down with watching, and the excessive heat together. Nor did this restlessness and frequent tossings prevent our being constantly bathed with sweat, though we lay on thin mattrasses spread upon the floor, and had all the windows in our room open. Nay, many people lay abroad on the pavements. So speedy was the putrefaction of dead bodies that they required to be quickly interred. For in the short space of five hours the body of a pretty corpulent woman who died as she was ironing linen, burst the coffin; so violent was the putrefaction. In order therefore to prevent such accidents as well as to guard against the offensive smell of so rapid a putrescence, it was found necessary to wrap dead bodies in sheets that were wrung out of tar, and bind them up tightly with cords.

"During this season a candle was blown out and set in a chimney at ten o'clock at night, the wick of which continued to burn clearly till next morning, and was likely to do so for many hours longer.

uations in which they are kept, must be decided by further experience. It is certain that the climates of old countries have been materially improved by clearing and cultivating the land. We have therefore reason to hope that a meliora-

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"When this violently hot weather began to break up, (about the 21st of July) every shower was accompanied with most dreadful lightning and thunder, by which several persons were killed in different places, besides the damages that were done to buildings and vessels. Among other instances of the alarming effects of lightning this year, the distress of one poor family may be related. The father and one of his sons being ploughing with four horses, they, together with their beasts, were all struck dead by one flash. I have known it to lighten and thunder violently, and with but little intermission, for eight or ten hours together, the clouds being all this while so low that in one afternoon the lightning fell on sixteen different objects in town, among which were nine dwelling-houses, one church, a meeting-house, and five vessels were dismasted in part.

"During the summer of 1752, the mercury often rose above the 90th degree of the Thermometer throughout the months of May, June, July, and August; and for twenty successive days, excepting three in June and July, the temperature of the shaded air varied between the 90th and 101st division, and sometimes it must have been 30 degrees warmer in the open sunshine, to which great numbers of people were daily exposed for many hours. Neither was ever a more healthy season known than this, so long as the weather continued steadily warm and fair. True indeed it is, that those who happened to sicken during these intensely hot months might almost be said to have escaped through the fire when they recovered, which few in truth did who were seized with fevers; and all those died on whom dropsies had made any considerable progress.

"All creatures seem equally affected with man by such intensely hot weather; for horses sweat profusely in the stable, and flag presently when ridden. Dogs seek the shade and lie panting with their tongues lolling out as if they had long pursued the chase. Poultry droop the wing and breathe with open throats in the manner cocks do when much heated in fighting. Crows and other wild fowls do the same, and are so unwilling to move that they will suffer a man to come nearer them than at other times before they fly."

Such was the account given of the weather in Charlestown, by Doctor Chalmers, a gentleman of veracity, of medical and philosophical accuracy in making and recording observations. The business has been taken up and prosecuted ever since the year 1791, by the medical society. In the whole of these 18 years the highest degree of the mercury has been from two degrees to five less than it was in two years of the four observed by Doctor Lining, and from one degree to eight less than it was in five years of the ten observed by Doctor Chalmers. Since 1791, it has reached 93 only on one day.

In 1 year it did not exceed 88. In 4 years it did not exceed 89. In 4 years it did not exceed 90. In 6 years it did not exceed 91. In 2 years it did not exceed 92.

In the 10 years viz., from 1750 to 1759, observed by Doctor Chalmers, it was in no year less than 90, and only in two years as low as 90.

In 1 year it reached to 101. In 2 years it reached, but did not exceed 96. In 2 years do. do. 94. In 2 years do. do. 93. In 1 year do. do. 91.

In the 4 years observed by Doctor Lining, it was 98 in the year 1738, and 95 in 1742. Doctor Chalmers' house, in the alley called by his name, was, doubtless, something warmer than Doctor Wilson's, at the west end of Broad-street. There may have been some variation in the structure or position of the respective thermometers; but the difference in the result is too great to be accounted for from these circumstances. It is possible that the apparent abatement of our summer heat is only accidental, and that the scorchings in 1738, and in or about the year 1752, will return in future years; but it is more probable that the degree of heat in Charlestown is now less than it was 60 or 70 years ago. It may be proved by inferences from facts stated in the Bible, and in the Greek and Roman classics, that the climate of those parts of Asia and Europe with which we are best acquainted have been meliorated to the extent of 15 or 20 degrees within the last 20 or 30 centuries. That an abatement of cold has taken place in the northern States within the two centuries that have passed away since their first settlement can also be satisfactorily ascertained. It remains to be proved by further observations and future experience, whether the labor of man in clearing and cultivating the earth is or is not rewarded by its moderating both heat and cold where they are excessive.

tion of ours will in time take place, and we are not too sanguine in believing that it is already begun.*

George Chalmers, in his political annals of the United Colonies, printed in 1780, page 541, 542, observes that "Charlestown was long unhealthful. From the month of June to October, the courts of justice were commonly shut up. No public business was transacted. Men fled from it as from a pestilence, and orders were given to inquire for situations more friendly to health." This statement is corroborated by tradition from the elder citizens, who inform us that in the time of their fathers the sick were sent from Charlestown to expedite their recovery in the more wholesome air of the country; and that the country was preferred on the score of health as a place of summer residence. This is by no means improbable. The site of Charlestown in its natural state was a slip of land stretching south-eastwardly, between two rivers, and projecting into the harbor formed by their junction and divided into a number of peninsulars by creeks and marshes; indenting it on three sides so as to leave but little unbroken high land in the middle. The first buildings extended along East Bay street, and had a marsh in their whole front. A considerable creek, named Vanderhorst's creek, occupied the foundation of Water street; and passing beyond Meeting street, sent out a branch to the northward nearly to the Presbyterian church. Another creek stretched northwestwardly nearly parallel to East Bay street, from the neighborhood of Macleod's lots, through Longitude lane, and to the north of it. The same kind of low grounds ran up Queen street, then called Dock street, beyond the French church, and through Beresford's alley till it approached Meeting street. The north end of Union street was planted with rice about the middle of the 18th century. Another very large creek occupied the site of the present central market, and extended westwardly beyond Meeting street, which diverged southwardly almost to the Independent church, and northwardly spreading extensively, and then dividing into two branches; running to the northwest and to the northeast so as to cover a large portion of

* When the Romans first invaded Britain, the face of a considerable part of that country resembled what Carolina now is; for it was equally covered with marshes, ponds and stagnant waters: and in like manner shaded with trees. When cultivation has improved Carolina as much as it has done Britain, they will be both equally dry, and if not equally healthy, nearly so. For the excessive cold of the one is as injurious to the human frame, as the excessive heat of the other when maccompanied with moisture or putrefaction.

Eighteen hundred years have passed away in effecting the change in Britain, and it is not yet fully accomplished; for there are in it even now several marshes, and a considerable quantity of low, moist, unhealthy ground. Judging of the future by the past, three or four hundred years will probably make such a change in the face of Carolina as will be little inferior to what Great Britain has slowly attained in the course of eighteen centuries.

ground. Besides the marsh and these creeks which nearly environed three sides of the improved part of Charlestown, there was another creek a little to the southward of what is now Water street, which stretched westwardly over Church street; and another which ran northwardly up Meeting street, and then extended across westwardly nearly to King street. A creek ran from the west near where Peter Smith's house now stands, and nearly parallel to South Bay till it approached the last mentioned creek, and was divided from it by King street and a slip of land on each side. Six other creeks ran eastwardly from Ashley river, three of which stretched across the peninsular so as to approximate to King street. There were also ponds and low grounds in different parts of the town. One of these extended on the east side of King street almost the whole distance between Broad and Tradd streets. This was granted to the French church in 1701, but being useless in its then state was leased out by them for 50 years. In the course of that period the tenants improved and built upon it. There was also a large body of low grounds at the intersection of Hasell and Meeting streets. The elder inhabitants often mention a large pond where the court house now stands. It is believed that this, though real, was artificial. It is probable that the intrenchments attached to the western fortifications of Charlestown, which extended up and down Meeting street from the vicinity of the Independent church to the vicinity of the Presbyterian church, were dug so deep as to cause a constant large collection of water at that middle part of the lines.* It was the site of Johnson's covered half moon, and of a draw-bridge over which was the chief communication between the town and the country. No prudent engineer would erect such works as these in a pond, though when they were erected in the moist soil of Charlestown they would be very likely to produce one. Whether this was a natural or artificial collection of water, there was enough in other parts of the town to make it unhealthy. Such, with some small alteration was the situation of Charlestown for the first 70 years after its settlement.†

To reduce such a quagmire as a great part of Charlestown originally was, to a firm, high, and dry state, required time, labor, and expense. Much has been done, but much remains for future enterprise.

The pond at the south end of Meeting street was filled up

* Persons now living remember that they have heard the deceased Samuel Prioleau, who was born in or about 1718, say that he had swam in the line of Meeting street, from the west end of the present Water street to the site of the present national Bank.

† This appears from George Hunter's ichnography of that city, published in 1739.

and built upon by Josiah Smith, in the years 1767, 1768, and 1769, at an expense of about £1,200 sterling.

Vanderhorst's creek was turned into a firm, solid land, between the years 1788 and 1792, and obtained the name of Water street.

The creek running under the Governor's bridge was finally obliterated and turned into a market, between the years 1804 and 1807. The extensive marsh land and low ground to the north and west of this creek had been filled up and built upon some years before by John Eberly, Anthony Toomer, and others. The time when the other creeks were converted into solid land and improved, cannot be exactly ascertained. As Charlestown extended, and land became more valuable, industrious enterprising individuals, by draining marshes and filling up creeks, advanced their private interest and contributed to the growing salubrity of the town.

In addition to what has been effected by individuals, for converting marsh into solid land, several incidental causes have contributed to a similar result. Every vault, cellar, and well, that has been dug in Charlestown for 128 years past, brought to the surface a part of a sandy soil, which, when laid on soft low ground, promoted its induration and elevation. Fires, of which there have been many, though destructive of property, have not been without their use. The lime, the mortar, and broken bricks of the burnt houses, were for the most part added to the surface of the ground and corrected its capacity for producing disease. In addition to the dryness of the soil, its elevation was beneficial. To the latter not only every new building, but every inhabitant contributes more or less every day. The offals of a single soap boiler sometimes amount to 500 bushels of ashes in a week. This multiplied by the number of the trade, and by the number of weeks that take place in a century, and by similar deposits from other persons, would contribute materially to the elevation of ground covered with houses and crowded with inhabitants. The projection of wharves into the adjacent rivers, which are filled up with dry materials, changes low unwholesome ground into what is high and healthy. Houses now stand in safety which are carried out so near to the channel of Cooper river, that the ooze, previously obtruded on the senses every ebb tide, is now no longer visible. From these and similar additions to the soil, Charlestown has been constantly, though slowly, becoming higher and dryer. The increase of an inch in fifteen or twenty years would probably be a moderate calculation for the aggregate amount of every addition that is made to it in that period. One foot less in the height of the land, or one foot more in the height of the water in the hurricane of 1752,

would, in the opinion of eye witnesses, have inundated every spot of ground in Charlestown. Under such circumstances the gradual elevation of the surface, increasing with time and population, holds out encouraging prospects to posterity; for the higher and dryer it is the more secure and healthy it will be. In a country whose maladies chiefly arise from heat and moisture, it is a glorious exploit to redeem it from the latter; which, of the two, is the most plentiful source of disease. Every Carolinian who plants a field—builds a house—fills a pond—or drains a bog, deserves well of his country. From the operation of these causes a change for the better has already taken place to a certain extent. With the exception of the more frequent recurrence of the yellow fever, Charlestown is now more healthy than it was thirty or forty years ago. The frequent recurrence of that disease is an exception to the generality of this remark more in appearance than reality. For though it is distressing and fatal to strangers, yet, as they are but a very small part of the whole population, the aggregate mass of disease for several years past, even with that addition, would nevertheless be inferior to what it formerly was. Bilious remitting autumnal fevers, have for some time past evidently decreased. Pleurisies, which were formerly common and dangerous, are now comparatively rare; and so easily cured as often to require no medical aid. The thrush in children, the cholera morbus, iliac passion or dry belly ache, have in a great measure disappeared. April and May used to be the terror of parents; but the diseases which thirty years ago occasioned great mortality among children in the spring, have for several years past been less frequent and less mortal. Consumptions on the other hand have become more common; but this is not chargeable on the climate but results from the state of society, and the growing wealth of the inhabitants, in conjunction with new dresses, manners, and customs. It is also in part to be accounted for from the accidental circumstance that several, every year, die in Carolina of that complaint who had recently arrived with it in its advanced stages from the West India islands or the more northern States. Their unparalleled increase in 1808, is the consequence of the influenza of 1807, and the present fashionable dresses.

In the medical history of Carolina, the improvement of the country is to be viewed only as one cause of the amelioration of its diseases. A more judicious medical treatment of the sick is another. This will appear by a particular review of the history of the small pox from the first settlement of the province.

The years 1700 and 1717 are the dates of the two first attacks of the small pox in Charlestown. In both it proved

fatal to a considerable proportion of the inhabitants. It returned in 1732, but effectual care was taken to prevent its spreading. In the year 1738 it was imported in a Guinea ship, and spread so extensively that there was not a sufficiency of persons in health to attend the sick; and many perished from neglect and want. There was scarcely a house in which there had not been one or more deaths.* Doctor Moybray, Surgeon of a British man-of-war then in the harbor, proposed inoculation; but the physicians opposed it at first. With the exception of Dr. Martini they afterwards came into it. Mr. Philip Prioleau was the first person in Charlestown who submitted to the operation. The success which attended this first experiment encouraged several others to follow the example. The disease soon after abated.

About the beginning of the year 1760, the small pox was discovered in the house of a pilot on White Point—guards were placed round the house, and every precaution taken to prevent the spreading of the disease; but in vain. When the persons first infected at White Point were either dead or well, the house in which they had lain was ordered to be cleansed. In doing this a great smoke was made, which, being carried by an easterly wind, propagated the disease extensively to the westward in the line of the smoke. Inoculation was resolved upon and became general.

When this practice was first introduced, and for several years after, the inoculators loaded their patients with mercury

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* From a manuscript in the hand-writing, and found among the papers of the venerable Thomas Lamboll who died in 1775, the following particulars are collected relative to this disease. "It first attracted public notice in May, 1738. In the next month a fast day was appointed by proclamation. Soon after the disease commenced, a report was circulated that tar water was not only a good preparative for receiving, but a preventive of the small pox. Many barrels of tar were sold and used for that purpose; but the author soon after took the infection and died, and his empiricism died with him.

"By an account dated September 30th, of the same year, it appeared that the whole number of deaths was 411; and the whole number which had taken the small pox was 2,112, of which 833 were whites, and 1,279 blacks. Of the former, 647 took the disease in its natural way, and of them 157 died. Of 188 whites who took the disease by inoculation, nine died. Of the 1,279 blacks who took the disease 1,028 had it in the natural way, and of them 138 died. The remainder 253 were inoculated, and of them seven died."

From these facts as stated by Mr. Lamboll, it appears that of the white persons who took the small pox in the natural way, nearly one in four died; but of such as took it by inoculation, the deaths were only one in twenty. Of the negroes who took the disease in the natural way, nearly one in seven died; but of such as took it by inoculation, the deaths were only one in thirty-six. It is well known that negroes have the small pox as bad, if not worse than white people, where the treatment of both is the same. That they fared better than their owners on this occasion must be referred to their being under less restraint with regard to cold air. In treating the small pox, an excess of care and confinement is much worse than no care or confinement whatever. From the same manuscript it appears that on the 21st of September, an act of assembly passed at Ashley ferry against inoculating for the small pox in Charlestown, or within two miles of it after the 10th of October 1738.

and tortured them with deep crucial incisions in which extraneous substances, impregnated with the variolous matter, were buried. There were then able physicians in Charlestown; but they were so mistaken with regard to the proper method of treating the disease that it was no uncommon practice to nail blankets over the shut windows of closed rooms, to exclude every particle of cool fresh air from their variolous patients whose comfort and safety depended on its free admission. The consequences were fatal. Charlestown was a scene of the deepest affliction. Almost every family was in distress for the loss of some of its members, but so occupied with their attentions to the sick that they could neither indulge the pomp nor the luxury of grief. The deaths from the small pox were nearly eleven-twelfths of the whole mortality in Charlestown. Only eighty-seven died of other diseases, while the deaths from the small pox amounted to nine hundred and forty. Of these only ninety-two died under inoculation. Fifteen hundred persons are said to have been inoculated in one day; and it is certain from the bills of mortality that 848 persons died of the disease who were not inoculated. If we allow that only one in four died, as in the year 1738, the whole number who took the disease in the natural way must have been 3,392. Precision in numbers is not attainable; but enough is known and remembered by several persons still alive to prove that the year 1760 was one of the most melancholy and distressing that ever took place in Charlestown.

In the year 1763 the small-pox returned; but as there were few to have it, and inoculation was generally adopted, its ravages were not extensive. For seventeen years after, the small-pox was seldom or never heard of. During the siege of Charlestown it was introduced, and immediately after the surrender of the town on the 12th of May, 1780, a general inoculation took place. As the cool regimen was then universally adopted, the disease passed over without any considerable loss or inconvenience.

Since the revolution, all the laws which interdicted the introduction and spreading of the small-pox have been repealed. There have been of course some cases of small pox almost every year, but nothing very general or alarming in any one. A small proportion of those who were inoculated died or suffered inconveniences from it; but to nineteen of twenty, it was a trifling disorder. This was a great triumph in favor of suffering humanity, but it was far short of what followed. In the year 1802, vaccination was introduced into Charlestown, within four years after Dr. Jenner had published its efficacy in preventing the small pox, though eighteen years had elapsed between the first inoculation in England for the small pox and

the adoption of that practice in Carolina. This substitute for the small pox was introduced into Charlestown by David Ramsay, who after many trials succeeded in February, 1802, in communicating the disease to his son Nathaniel. From him originally, or remotely, some thousands have received the disease. No case has yet occurred in which a clearly marked case of small pox has followed a clearly marked case of vaccination. Mistakes have been made with respect to both diseases, and the one has in some instances been communicated to persons who had previously received the seed of the other. From these causes, added to the ignorance and carelessness of some vaccinators, the confidence of a few in the Jennerian discovery has been weakened. But that the real vaccine is a preventive of the real small pox is as certain, from the testimony and experience of thousands, as that the inoculated small pox secures against the natural. Thus, in the short space of seventy years, the small pox has been moderated in Carolina from the natural to the artificial. The latter so alleviated by mild treatment, and particularly by the cool regimen, as to become for the most part a trifling disease; and finally an opportunity has been given to avoid the dangers and inconvenience of both, by a safe and easy substitute. The future ravages of the small pox may be fairly put to the account of the carelessness, the ignorance or the prejudices of the people.* Though ordinary fevers, since the improvement of Charlestown, have been less frequent and less dangerous, yet for the last sixteen years the yellow fever has recurred much oftener than in any preceding period. This has not been satisfactorily accounted for. If we refer it to some new state of the air, we virtually ac-

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* The Royal College of Physicans, in London, in obedience to the command of his Britannic majesty, "To inquire into the state of vaccine inoculation in the United Kingdom," made a report on the subject on the 10th of April, 1807, from which the following extracts are taken:

"In the British islands some hundred thousands have been vaccinated. In our possessions in the East Indies upwards of eight hundred thousand, and among the nations of Europe the practice has become general.

"Vaccination appears to be in general perfectly safe; the instances to the contrary being extremely rare. The disease excited by it is slight, and seldom prevents those under it from following their ordinary occupations. It has been communicated with safety to pregnant women, to children during dentition and in their earliest infancy, in all which respects it possesses material advantages over inoculation for the small pox.

"The security derived from vaccination against the small-pox, if not absolutely perfect, is as nearly so as can perhaps be expected from any human discovery; for amongst several hundred thousand cases, with the results of which the college have been made acquainted, the number of alleged failures has been surprisingly small; so much so as to form certainly no reasonable objection to the general adoption of vaccination; for it appears that there are not nearly so many failures in a given number of vaccinated persons as there are deaths in an equal number of persons inoculated for the small pox.

"The testimonies before the College of Physicians are very decided in declaring that vaccination does less mischief to the constitution, and less frequently gives rise to other diseases, than the small pox, either natural or inoculated."

knowledge our ignorance. No visible obvious cause can be designated why it should have recurred almost every year of the last fifteen, and not once as an epidemic disease for the forty years which immediately preceded the year 1792.

In the year 1699 or 1700, in addition to the calamities resulting from a desolating fire and a fatal epidemic small pox, a distemper broke out in Charlestown which carried off an incredible number of people, among whom were Chief-Justice Bohun, Samuel Marshal, the Episcopal clergyman, John Ely, the Receiver-General, Edward Rawlins, the Provost-Marshal, and almost one-half of the members of Assembly. Never had the colonies been visited with such general distress and mortality. Some whole families were carried off, and few escaped a share of the public calamities. Almost all were lamenting the loss either of their habitations by the devouring flames, or of friends and relations by this disease or the small pox. Anxiety and distress were visible on every countenance. Many of the survivors seriously thought of abandoning a country on which the judgments of heaven seemed to fall so heavy. Dr. Hewatt, from whom the preceding account is taken, designates this malady by the general appellation of "an infectious distemper." It was generally called the plague by the inhabitants. From tradition, and other circumstances, particularly the cotemporaneous existence of the yellow fever in Philadelphia, there is reason to believe that this malady was the yellow fever; and if so, was the first appearance of that disorder in Charlestown, and took place in the nineteenth or twentieth year after it began to be built.

The same author states, "that in 1703 an epidemical distemper raged at Charlestown, which swept off a vast number of inhabitants; and as the town was threatened by the French and Spaniards, the Governor, who called the inhabitants to its assistance, held his head-quarters about half a mile distant from the town, on account of the contagious distemper which then raged therein; not wishing to expose his men to the dangerous infection, unless from necessity." These circumstances make it probable that this was also the yellow fever. If so, this was its second visit, and only three or four years subsequent to the first.

The same author states, "that the summer of 1728 was uncommonly hot in Carolina; that in consequence thereof the face of the earth was entirely parched, the pools of standing water dried up, and the beasts of the field reduced to the greatest distress; and that an infectious and pestilential distemper, commonly called the 'yellow fever,' broke out in town, and swept off multitudes of the inhabitants, both white and black. As the town depended entirely on the country for

fresh provisions, the planters would suffer no person to carry supplies to it, for fear of catching the infection and bringing it to the country. The physicians knew not how to treat the uncommon disorder, which was suddenly caught and proved quickly fatal. The calamity was so general, that few could grant assistance to their distressed neighbors. So many funerals happening every day while so many lay sick, white persons sufficient for burying the dead were scarcely to be found. Though they were often interred on the same day they died, so quick was the putrefaction, so offensive and infectious were the corpses, that even the nearest relations seemed averse from the necessary duty." This is the first direct mention of the yellow fever in the history of Carolina.

From the information of Dr. Prioleau, derived from the manuscripts of his accurate and observing grandfather, the venerable Samuel Prioleau, who died in the year 1792, at the age of seventy-four, it appears "that in the year 1732 the yellow fever began to rage in May, and continued till September or October. In the heighth of the disorder there were from eight to twelve whites buried in a day, besides people of color. The ringing of the bells was forbidden, and little or no business was done. In the year 1739, the yellow fever raged nearly as violently as in the year 1732. It was observed to fall most severely on Europeans. In 1745 and 1748 it returned, but with less violence; however, many young people, mostly Europeans, died of it. It appeared again, in a few cases, in 1753 and 1755, but did not spread. In all these visitations it was generally supposed that the yellow fever was imported, and it was remarked that it never spread in the country, though often carried there by infected persons, who died out of Charlestown, after having caught the disease in it."

For forty-four years after 1748, there was no epidemic attack of this disease, though there were occasionally in different summers a few sporadic cases of it. In the year 1792 a new era of the yellow fever commenced. It raged in Charlestown in that year, and in 1794, 1795, 1796, 1797, 1799, 1800, 1801, 1802, 1804, and 1807. The number of deaths from it in these, its worst years, were—

Deaths.—In 1799, 239, in 1800, 184; in 1802, 96; in 1804, 148; in 1807, 162.

It appeared slightly in the years 1803 and 1805. In both years its victims did not exceed 59. In the years 1793, 1798, and 1808, the disease is not mentioned at all, and in the year 1806 it is only mentioned as having occurred in a very few cases, under particular circumstances. In its visitations it extended from July to November, but was most ripe in August and September. With a very few exceptions, chiefly chil-

dren, it exclusively fell on strangers. The unseasoned negroes were not exempt from its ravages, but they escaped oftener than other strangers, and when attacked, had the disease in a slighter degree, and if properly treated were more generally cured. Persons, both black and white, arriving from the West India Islands enjoy similar exemptions from the yellow fever of Charlestown. In the years 1796 and 1799 it raged with its greatest violence, but has since considerably abated both in frequency and violence. This abatement is partly owing to the diminished number of subjects, for strangers have been cautious of residing in or even visiting Charlestown in the warm months. It is also to be in part ascribed to a more judicious treatment of the disease; for physicians now cure a greater proportion of their patients laboring under it, especially when they apply for relief in its first stage, than some years ago, when it was a new disease in the practice of the oldest and most experienced of the faculty.* Nevertheless, there is reason to believe that a real abatement has taken place. Nor is this uncommon; for diseases, like other natural phenomena, come and go. Such has been the history of the yellow fever in Charlestown from its settlement to the present time. Solitary cases originated in the country, but they were few in number and not often repeated.

The laws of Carolina guard against the yellow fever, as an imported contagious disease. The uniform experience of the physicians in Charlestown, since the year 1792, proves that it is neither one nor the other; for in no instance has a physician, nurse, or other attendant on persons laboring under this disease, caught it from them. Several, after taking it in Charlestown, carried it with them and died in the country, yet it never spread nor was communicated to any one who attended on them. In every such case of mortality the disease and the subject of it expired together. The quarantine laws exist in the statute book, and impose useless restrictions on commerce; but the execution of them is so far relaxed as not to be unreasonably inconvenient. The present policy adopted

*The detailed particulars of the yellow fever in Charlestown in the year 1802 may serve as a sample of it in other seasons. The whole number of deaths from that disease in that year was ninety-six. Of these two took place in August, sixty-four in September, and thirty in October. In the whole number there was not a single native of Charlestown, though five of them were born in South, and one in North Carolina; twenty-one were born in England, twenty in the northern States, nineteen in Ireland, eight in Germany, seven in Scotland, five in France, one in Spain, one in Prussia, and one in Madeira. The birth-place of the remaining seven could not be ascertained. There was not a single black and only one mulatto died of this fever in 1802; but they were not equally fortunate in other years. One of the subjects to whom it proved fatal, had resided three years, partly in Charlestown and partly on Sullivan's Island. One had resided two years, two a year and a half, and eighten for eleven or twelve months in Charlestown. The residence of the remainder varied from eight months to six days.

by the City Council, founded on the recommendation of the medical society, proceeds on the idea of enforcing cleanliness in the houses, yards, streets, harbor and shipping, as the best practicable means of guarding against the yellow fever and other diseases incidental to the climate. These are all aggravated by the excess of solar heat. The diminution of that exciting cause of disease would be of great service. From this, if it could be effected in conjunction with cleanliness and a high dry surface of the soil, both of which have been already attained in Charlestown to a considerable degree, a melioration of the health of the inhabitants might be confidently expected. Two remedies for diminishing heat have been proposed. Shading the streets by trees, or projections from the dwelling-houses, so that a person might pass along without exposure to the direct rays of the sun. No one can walk before the National bank without wishing it was practicable to enjoy a similar refreshing shade in every other part of the city. The second proposed remedy is the plentiful introduction of water, so as to give a facility for washing and cooling the streets with an artificial shower whenever wanted. Streets either paved or covered with gravelly materials, which would transmit but not stagnate superincumbent water, and occasionally watered, would probably prevent or at least mitigate diseases, and certainly moderate the distressing heat of summer, and refresh the inhabitants.

Diseases of the throat are common in Carolina. Its variable weather often produces inflammatory affections of that organ. A disease thereof, accompanied with the scarlet fever, or the *scarlatina anginosa*, frequently recurs, but is rarely mortal. An apparently slight affection of the throat, accompanied with a laborious respiration resembling the croup, about the year 1785, proved very destructive to many children, and in a few instances to three or four in one family. It has seldom recurred since that period.

The measles may be reckoned among the epidemic diseases of Carolina. They are sometimes directly and speedily fatal, especially when treated with heating remedies, on the absurd theory of forcing a sweat and expediting their eruption, but oftener lay the foundation for slow wasting consumptions; especially where bleeding and a low regimen has been neglected. The visitations of measles have not been matter of historical record, except in the journals of the Medical Society, from which it appears that they have occurred in 1791, '2, '3, '4, '5, '6, and 1802 and 1803; but no particular mortality is noted as attached to the disease.

Our elder citizens recollect that the measles were not only epidemic, but frequently fatal in the year 1772; especially when they fell on the bowels or lungs. Tradition informs us

that in the years 1747, 1759, 1775, or 1776, they were also common and fatal; principally by the bowel complaints which followed them.

Influenza in like manner, though a serious and frequent epidemic, has seldom been the subject of record.

Many persons remember that the influenza, after traversing the United States in 1789, reached Carolina and spread extensively. It was very fatal on the plantations near the north-eastern line of the State, especially to prime full grown negroes. William Alston lost above thirty of that description. The whole mucous membrane, through all its recesses in the sinuses of the os frontis, was most grievously affected. Deafness, loss of taste and smell, for a long period were among its consequences. More have reason to remember the influenza of 1807. Gradually advancing from the northern States, it reached Charlestown early in September.* It spared neither age nor sex, though children oftenest escaped altogether; or if attacked, got through the disease with the least inconvenience. The reverse was the case with aged persons. It soon became so general that in some large families there was not a sufficiency of persons in health to attend on the sick. In a few weeks it is supposed that 14,000 persons, or half the population of Charlestown, had been afflicted with that disease. Of these, forty-five died; thirteen of whom were white persons and thirty-two negroes. The former were generally aged persons. The disease spread on all sides into the country. The mortality in Georgetown and Beaufort was considerably greater than in Charlestown. The disease in many cases was so mild as to preclude the necessity of application to a physician. In dangerous cases, when medical aid was required, bleeding, blistering, emetics, cathartics, and sudorifices were chiefly relied upon.

The influenza in its commencement resembled the yellow-fever with a pain in and over the eyes, and with red streaks over their whites. A sharp acrid serum was discharged from the eyes, and sometimes from the nostrils. In such cases a hoarseness and soreness of the throat was usual. The sense of smelling was sometimes impaired, the hearing was frequently injured, and in a few cases the powers of vision were

* This disease originated in New York in the month of August, and spread from that centre in all directions. It reached Canada in October, and had extended to the western and southwestern States, and even to the Havana in the course of three months. Members of Congress on their way to Washington, where they were summoned to assemble on the 26th of October, while traveling from their respective homes, met the disease in every State. Its progress was so rapid as to outstrip the slow movements of contagion, and must have arisen from some morbid constitution of the air. This is more probable from the circumstance that it was caught at sea by persons approaching the coast of America from distant countries.

diminished. A tightness and stricture across the breast, with a dry cough, was common. The matter expectorated was occasionally tinged with blood. The whole mucous membrane lining the fauces, nostrils, and bronchia, was uncommonly stuffed with phlegm. In the aged the disease assumed the form of a peripneumony; in the young and plethoric, that of a pleurisy. Persons of a consumptive diathesis, or who had been subject to old coughs or diseases of the breast, suffered most and oftenest relapsed. Spittings of blood and other serious precursors of consumption attacked such patients after the disease had in their cases apparently vanished and generally disappeared. An uncommon increase of consumptions followed in the year 1808, which exceeded anything ever before known in Charlestown.

The whooping cough rages more or less almost every year, but its visits have not been generally recorded. The returns of yellow fever, and of small pox in the early period of our history, made such strong impressions on the minds of the people as to form æras in the domestic history of private families. But the whooping cough though an epidemic disease, occasionally fatal, and one which attacks almost every person, yet it has been for the most part soon forgotten. It is nevertheless recorded that in the year 1804 it proved fatal to sixty-four children in Charlestown. It has been remarked that in seasons when Charlestown was healthy, the country was sickly. The reverse has also been noticed. Diseases are most ripe in the city in summer, but in the country in autumn. A constitution of the air prevails in one which is different from that of the other. For three months, July, August, and September, a free intercourse between them is not without danger. They fare best who keep steadily for that period either in the city or the country. These remarks, always true, have been eminently so in 1808; for in that most healthy summer there were few mortal cases of fever which originated in Charlestown, while excursions for a few days to the country in many cases proved fatal. The fevers which in summer and autumn attack the inhabitants of the city in consequence of their going to the country, lie dormant for some time, more or less; for a week, nine or ten days, and in some cases longer. That all danger is past cannot be certainly known in less than twenty-one days after returning to the city.

The diseases of negroes in Carolina differ in several particulars from those of white people. Palsies, apoplexies, and madness dyspepsia, and the whole train of maladies connected with the passions and acts of the mind, are less frequent with the former than the latter. Removed from all anxiety concerning their own support, or that of their

children; incapable of holding property or of advancing themselves, their minds are generally made up to their situation, and they are free from many tormenting passions and corroding cares which prey upon the health and break the hearts of their owners. To colds, fevers, and such complaints as result from a variable climate, they are rather more liable than white people. The dread of losing time and of incurring expense for the recovery of health is no inducement with them to take care of it. All these losses and all cares respecting future events fall on their masters. A respite from labor compensates for the pains of slight indispositions. They are therefore incorrigibly careless, and wantonly expose themselves to the dangers which result from the sudden changes of the weather. Their common intermitting fevers are easily cured, and seldom require more than a smart emetic; but epidemic fevers occasionally break out among them which not unfrequently baffle medical skill. These have no regular periods of returning. They were frequent in the revolutionary war, especially when great numbers of negroes were crowded in small confined spots. The disease had different names and was occasionally called camp, hospital, gaol, putrid, nervous, and malignant fevers. Its supposed causes are filth, impure air, putrid animal and vegetable effluvia, a moist atmosphere, great fatigue, and low scanty diet; but sometimes they break out without any visible known cause, and in both cases prove fatal to numbers of the most valuable negroes in particular neighborhoods or plantations, while the white people generally escape. The treatment of blacks laboring under these novel diseases* puzzled the physicians; for the symptoms were so various in different attacks that the best informed could not always trust former experience, and were sometimes obliged in the first cases to grope their way. These limited epidemics have been so destructive at different times to negro property as to add much to the uncertainty of planters' estates.

Of the diseases which have been reviewed, Carolina has its

* Among the novel diseases of negroes was one which became the subject of remark at the beginning of the revolutionary war, when large bodies of blacks were employed as laborers on the public works. This had the external appearance of dropsy, or universal anasarca, and was accompanied with extreme debility, great thirst, loss of appetite, and in many cases quickly proved mortal. In the cure of it the salt of tobacco was first extensively introduced into practice in Charlestown, and it has ever since maintained a superior rank among the medicines which are prescribed in dropsical complaints.

During the siege of Charlestown in 1780, a fever, answering exactly to the description of the hospital fever, broke out among the negroes employed on the works of the besiegers, which depopulated many of the plantations in the neighborhood of the scene of military operations. After the siege, this disease made its appearance among the negroes confined in prison, and carried off multitudes. Several of these turned yellow before they died. The mortality from it was so great that in one case eighty negroes given by an affectionate father to an only son, were in a few weeks reduced to forty-two.

full proportion. Of others it has less. Gravel and nephritic complaints in general have at all times been comparatively rare. The operation of lithotomy which has been performed seventeen times in Philadelphia by Doctor Bond, sixty times by Doctor John Jones of New York, and two hundred times by Doctor Turner of Connecticut, has been rarely necessary in Carolina. Only three operations can be distinctly and certainly recollected as having been performed on its inhabitants; two by Doctor Turner, and one by Doctor Glover. In each of these three cases the operation succeeded. Consumptions, though they have increased in Charlestown very much within the last ten years, and within the last four years from ninety-two to upwards of two hundred fatal cases in the year, and even more so since the general influenza of 1807, yet are much rarer in Carolina than in more northern climates. The same may be said of rheumatisms. In the statistic accounts of Scotland, the general prevalence of that distressing disease is referred to the severity of their cold weather, to the dampness of their houses uncorrected by large fires, and to a deficiency of fuel. The superabundance of wood, and particularly of light-wood, in the country enables even the poor in Carolina to guard against such complaints as far as they are the effects of cold. The consequences of being enveloped in, and breathing a terebinthinate air are not fully known. There is reason to believe that they are eminently beneficial. It is an old and well authenticated observation that persons, whether white or black, employed in burning tar kilns are always healthy. Miserable will be the lot of the poor, both black and white, in Carolina, when light-wood ceases to be common or to be easily procured. Of the numerous emigrants from colder countries there have been several who, though troubled in the land of their nativity with painful rheumatic affections or threatened with serious diseases of the breast, have found on their settling in Carolina that the first either vanished or were mitigated both in violence and frequency and that the last, if not cured, were rendered stationary.

The rickets, scrophula, scurvy, and diabetes, especially the first, are very uncommon in this State. Children, even slaves, seldom experience the parchings of hunger; especially on plantations where provisions are raised. Their youthful limbs are not crippled by early confinement at sedentary employments. Play is the chief business of most of them till they are sufficiently grown to work in the field or to do something of consequence. Hypochondriasis,* and indeed the whole tribe

* It is probable that the state of mind which leads to self-murder is less common in Carolina than in more northern latitudes; but it is certain from an examination of the records of the Coronor's office in Charlestown that few natives commit that foul crime in comparison with strangers. From this authentic source of informa-

of chronical diseases is less common in this warm climate than in those which are cold. The dangers and difficulties of parturition are also comparatively less. The general character of most diseases in Carolina is acute. Their onset is violent, their progress rapid, their termination speedy, and they require energetic remedies. Short credit is given to juvenile indulgences. The follies of youth and their distressing consequences follow almost immediately in the order of cause and effect. He that wishes to do the great business of life by preparation for futurity, or even to make a prudent and judicious testamentary disposition of his property, would do well to arrange these matters before serious sickness commences; for that is often so rapid as to leave little leisure to attend to anything further than the prescriptions of the physician till reason departs or death closes the scene forever.

Fevers are the proper endemics of Carolina, and occur oftener than any, probably than all other diseases. These are the effects of its warm, moist climate, of its low grounds, and stagnant waters. In their mildest season they assume the type of intermittents; in their next grade they are bilious remittents, and under particular circumstances in their highest grade constitute yellow fever. The efforts of the inhabitants to guard against these diseases merit a place in medical history. Their first plan is said to have been retirement from Charlestown to the country. This may have answered for the first thirty or forty years; for in that period very little of the swamps had been opened, and the high and dry pine lands were the chief spots both of residence and improvement. The increased cultivation of rice, the diffusion of marsh miasmata from the open cultivated low grounds, and the location of settlements near them in process of time turned the balance of health in favor of Charlestown. The wealthy planters who could afford the expenses of a double residence, spent their summers in town and their winters in the country. Within the last sixteen years the frequent recurrence of yellow fever in the crowded metropolis has induced numbers to adopt other plans. The sea islands, particularly Sullivan's and Beaufort, Edding's bay, and the sea-shore, generally has been resorted to as places of healthy retirement during the summer season. With the same views Walterborough, Springfield, Summerville, Pineville, and some other smaller establishments,

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tion it appears that in the first eight years of the 19th century there were twenty-four self-murderers in Charlestown. Of these, only two were born in the State. Six were newly imported Africans, whose situation was peculiar. Nine were from the northern parts of Europe, four from the more northern States of America; only two from France, and one from Jamaica. Migrations from north to south are frequently undertaken with extravagant expectations of great advantages from the change. These often fail and advantage is taken of their failure against the unfortunate for the worst of purposes by the worst of beings.

have suddenly grown into villages. A medical opinion, apparently well founded, has generally prevailed that the endemic diseases of Carolina were not the effect of heat alone, nor exclusively of superabundant moisture; but the result of both, producing and combining with putrefaction. The conclusion followed that health might be enjoyed in any situation exempt from putrefaction and moisture, and at a sufficient distance from the miasmata to which they give birth. Experience had proved that these miasmata seldom extended their effects as far as three miles, even to the leeward of stagnant putrefying materials, and much less on the windward side. Spots of high and dry land covered with pine trees, and at a sufficient distance from ponds, swamps, and other reservoirs of poisonous effluvia, have been diligently sought for; and to them families have retired from their dwelling houses, injudiciously located in the vicinity of the swamps, and there passed the summers sociably with their neighbors allured to the same place with the same views. Advantages neither foreseen nor calculated upon have resulted from these temporary villages. They became the seats of schools and of churches, neither of which were within the convenient grasp of the inhabitants when dispersed over the adjacent country. Experience confirmed the theory which gave birth to these establishments, for their inhabitants have generally escaped the fevers of the season; nor were their planting interests materially injured, for they could make short excursions to their plantations and return without inhaling the seeds of fever. Numbers in this manner parry the diseases of summer at the trifling expense of a slight building in the pine woods. The residents on Sullivan's island enjoy a wholesome air, inferior to none in the world, with the exception of persons laboring under diseases of the breast, many of whom are injured by the tonic qualities of the island air. Enjoyments without alloy are rarely the lot of man. While the inhabitants of that salubrious island revelled in health, and rioted in intellectual and social pleasures, they were surprised with the hurricane of 1804 which brought their lives into serious danger, and from which there was no possibility of escape. Apprehensions of the return of similar scenes have been ever since a source of annual anxiety. The extremity of heat elsewhere which makes the coolness of the island so great a luxury, is the exciting cause of these convulsions of nature which render a residence thereon dangerous. Experience of more than a century has demonstrated that hurricanes are always preceded by extreme hot weather, and generally accompanied with the yellow fever. They occur in the same season, and follow in the train of each other as effect

and cause. In such a case between the dread of pestilence in the city, of common fever in the country, and of an expected hurricane on the island, the inhabitants of the latter are at the close of every warm season in a painful state of anxiety, not knowing what course to pursue, nor what is best to be done.

An opinion generally prevails that South Carolina is unhealthy. This is neither correctly true nor wholly false. A great proportion of the State, especially of the lower country, is for the most part inundated. In it sluggish rivers, stagnant swamps, ponds, and marshes are common; and in or near to them putrefaction is generated. In all these places, and for two or three miles adjacent to them, the seeds of febrile diseases are plentifully sown and from them are disseminated; particularly between the months of June and November. On the other hand, the sea-shore and sea islands are for the most part healthy. The same may be affirmed of the ridges of land between the rivers. These extend from ten to forty or fifty miles. After deducting inland swamps, and two or three miles on the margin of the rivers, and around the ponds and marshes, many thousands of acres of high, dry, and healthy land will remain. As we advance westwardly these deductions lessen. The swamps terminate about 120 miles from the ocean. Beyond them are extensive settlements in which the blessings of health are generally enjoyed, with the exception of the margins of rivers and the vicinity of ponds and mill-dams. This is the case in the districts of Abbeville, Laurens, Spartanburg, York, Union, Newberry, Chester, Lancaster, Fairfield, and eminently so in Pendleton and Greenville. The greatest part of the high hills of Santee, though only seventy or eighty miles in a direct line from the ocean, is also in general, healthy. Such is the medical division of South Carolina as resulting from the natural qualities of the soil. Art has done something and might do much more for the improvement of the country. Every drop of superabounding and at present injurious moisture that is therein, may be turned to some useful account. When suffered to stagnate it is a curse, when properly dispersed it is a blessing. Marshes, low grounds, and ponds may be drained by the industry of man, and their surplus water made to fertilize the adjacent thirsty soil. The removal of obstructions in the rivers and creeks would give motion to much stagnant or sluggish water, and convert moist into dry ground. Inland navigation connected with irrigation might be carried to such an extent as to give an active and important use to much of that water which is now the hot bed of putrefaction. These things have been done in China and may be done in Carolina. Every step that is taken in this

glorious work advances both the health and wealth of the country.

The original settlers of Carolina had no thought that in less than a century Oyster-Point would become a place of commercial importance, and the capital of an independent State stretching from the ocean to the mountains. Had they anticipated half of what has already taken place, ten feet alleys, and streets thirty-three feet wide, would have made no part of their projected seat of government. It would then have been nearly as easy to have made the streets one hundred feet wide as any inferior number. In that case they would have admitted three rows of trees, one at each side, and one in the middle of every street. It would have been easy to have made no lots of less size than half an acre, and by law to have prevented their subdivision. In addition to the inconveniences of a low and moist situation, too many people in Charlestown, in consequence of its niggardly plan, are crowded on too small a space of ground. Close compact cities are the destroyers of the human race. Every family generates a portion of filth, and when they are near to each other, that becomes too great for the health of the citizens. Numbers are every year sacrificed to the avarice of the proprietors of lots. The evils of a crowded population are increased by high and close fences, which are daily increasing, and still more by building houses in contact with each other and without any interstice between. The daily removal of putrescible substances lessens the evils of an impure air, but is inadequate to the purpose intended. The only effectual remedy is fresh running water. This unites cleanliness with coolness. It removes noxious vapors, cools the atmosphere and increases its salubrity by extricating fresh and wholesome air from its own substance. The next best practicable mitigator of heat and corrector of foul air in Charlestown is trees planted in all the streets which can admit them. They are the coolers given to us by nature. In addition to their refreshing shade, they imbibe the poisonous materials which vitiate the air. They fan the earth by the vibratory motion of their leaves. Instead of obstructing the free circulation of the air, they increase a light breeze by creating an under current on the surface of the earth, where it is wanted. Cities built with marble, if destitute of trees and vegetation, would only afford a miserable residence to splendidly wretched inhabitants.

Much of the sickness in the country arises from an injudicious choice of sites for habitation. Health or disease, long life or premature death, hang very much on the choice of a salubrious situation for a house. This should never be on the side of a marsh or within a mile of it; but if this cannot be

avoided, the dwelling should be placed to the windward, which in this State is the south and west; for the unwholesome winds of summer mostly blow from these points. If circumstances make it necessary to live near to or on the north or east side of unwholsome spots, the evil may be mitigated by preserving or planting trees in the intermediate space.

South Carolina since the revolution has been favored with the privilege, seldom enjoyed by any State, of forming a city on medical and philosophical principles for health and comfort without any influence from mercantile convenience or land jobbing avarice. The extension of settlements far to the west loudly demanded on republican principles a removal of the seat of government from the vicinity of the Atlantic ocean. The general principle being resolved upon, no private views could control the sovereign people from establishing their government where they pleased; and wherever they fixed it a town would of course be speedily formed. A high and commanding situation about one hundred and twenty miles from Charlestown, and about three miles from the junction of Broad and Saluda rivers, commonly known by the name of the plane of Taylor's hill, was selected. In many respects this choice was judicious: perhaps a much better could not have been made to the east of the mountains. There was a sufficient elevation to carry off with management all superfluous water. Some of the defects in the original plan of Charlestown were obviated. No lots were to be less than half an acre. The two main streets crossing each other at right angles were to be each 150 feet wide, and none were to be less than sixty. It was unfortunately, but perhaps unavoidably placed on the north and east side of the neighboring rivers and no more than about three miles distant. It is to be regretted that the lots were not by the original terms of sale made indivisible, and their owners restrained from building more than one dwelling house on each—that the plat of the town was not so constituted as to have preserved all the timber between the town and the rivers as a defence against the south west winds, impregnated with the miasmata with which they are usually charged, and that all possibility of erecting mill dams or keeping up ponds of stagnant water was not legally or constitutionally forbidden. These regulations could with ease and propriety have been adopted at first, but cannot now be carried into effect without violating private rights. The place is sufficiently high to have in it no other than running water; and the streets are wide enough to admit without inconvenience, three rows of trees to be planted in each of them. These advantages, with the surrounding woods and vegeta-

tion, especially when drained of every drop of stagnant water, may keep the town healthy till the rising value of its lots paves the way for the destruction of pure air by a crowded population. This is to be apprehended, for the degree of heat therein is greater than in Charlestown, and is unallayed by salutary sea breezes; the refrigerating qualities of the trade winds; the ventilation from the motion of tide, water, and even of the east and northeast winds which seldom penetrate so far from the shores of the Atlantic as sensibly to moderate the heat of summer. The natural advantages of Columbia and its scattered settlements, together with the improved plan of the town, bid fair, under the direction of a well regulated police, to preserve it healthy for several years; but from its greater heat it will be more exposed to diseases than Charlestown when population, compact settlement and consequent filth shall be equal in both.

A medical society for the advancement of the healing art was formed in 1789, and incorporated in 1794. At their monthly meetings they converse on the prevailing diseases; examine and record their meteorological observations, and discuss some medical question or subject. The members are by their rules under obligations to furnish in rotation some original medical paper which, after circulating among the members, is made the subject of conversation and discussion at their next meeting. Of these papers, a few have already been published. Others remain sufficient both in number and importance to make a volume which probably will in time be brought forward to public view. In all cases respecting the medical police of Charlestown application has been made to this society for their advice, and it has been cheerfully given and essentially contributed to form beneficial regulations for preserving the health of the inhabitants. Three institutions emanated from the medical society of great public utility: the Humane society—the Charlestown dispensary, and the Botanic garden. An apparatus for the recovery of persons suffering under suspended animation was purchased by the society, and lodged near the most frequented wharves with directions how to treat the sufferers. The members tendered their medical services when called upon. They also applied to the City Council for their aid, who directed that all articles used, and all assistance rendered should, if required, be paid by the city; and that any retailer of spirituous liquors who refused the use of his house for trying the process of resuscitation should receive no new license for carrying on his business. The second institution, or the Dispensary, was instituted for the medical relief of the poor in their own houses. Most of the physicians and surgeons of the society in rotation gratuitously attend and pre-

scribe for the dispensary patients. These are admitted to the benefit of the institution by tickets from trustees. The City Council appoints the trustees and also the dispensary apothecary. To the latter an annual salary is paid from the city treasury for his medicines and services. Thus medical advice and attendance can be obtained at their own habitations gratuitously by all the indigent inhabitants who apply for it; and the whole expense has hitherto cost the city no more than 1,000 dollars per annum. The young physicians, when admitted members of the medical society, are classed into pairs; and in monthly rotation with the elder members, prescribe for and attend on the dispensary patients. In cases of difficulty, provision is made for consultations with some of the elder physicians appointed for that purpose by the medical society. In addition to the manifold advantages derived to the more indigent inhabitants from this institution, it proves an excellent practical school for the younger physicians, and furnishes a conspicuous opportunity for introducing their industry, talents, and acquirements to public observation.

The Botanic society was formed and incorporated in the year 1805. The Medical society gave to it three hundred dollars, fifty dollars per annum, and a large lot of land which had been generously given to them by Mrs. Savage, now Mrs. Turpin, to be used as a Botanic garden. The inhabitants were invited to join the association, and on their annual payment of any sum between four to ten dollars, at their option, they were entitled to privileges in proportion to their respective subscriptions, and became members of the Botanic society. An annual sum of 1,176 dollars thus obtained from voluntary subscribers, has given activity to the project. The garden was opened in the year 1805, and has been superintended ever since by a committee,chosen partly by the medical society and partly by the other members of the Botanic society. This committee keep in constant employ an experienced practical Botanist, and a few laborers under him. The institution has flourished beyond the most sanguine expectations of its friends. It is now enriched with a considerable number of plants, both indigenous and exotic, arranged according to the Linnean system, and additions are constantly making to it by the citizens and from foreign countries. From the proceeds of a lottery now pending, hopes are entertained that the society will be enabled to enlarge their plan so as to make their garden the repository of every thing useful, new, and curious in the vegetable world. A society of practitioners of physic from several surrounding districts has been lately formed, which now hold their meetings in Union district, under the name of Esculapean society of South Carolina. The duties and exercises

imposed by this society are similar to those imposed by the Medical society of South Carolina. Their funds are intended for the purchase of a Medical library.

For eighty or ninety years after the first settlement of South Carolina, the practice of physic was almost entirely in the hands of Europeans. Among these were several able physicians who possessed an accurate knowledge of the diseases of the country.

The 18th century was more than half elapsed before the Carolinians seriously undertook to educate their sons for the practice of physic, or before any native of America had established himself in South Carolina as a practitioner of medicine. About the year 1760 a few youths were put under the care of respectable physicians in Charlestown who, after spending five or six years in their shops, doing the duties of apprentices, and reading practical medical books, spent three or four seasons at the university of Edinburgh and then came home invested with the merited degrees of Doctors of Medicine. They were well received by their countrymen, and readily established themselves in business. This success encouraged others to follow their example and ever since a medical education has been more common. Anterior to the revolution nothing short of an European education was deemed sufficient to attach the confidence of the public to any medical practitioner; but the growing reputation of the university of Pennsylvania resulting from the splendid talents of its Professors, and the solid attainments of its graduates, has done away this impression. The conveniency of attending medical lectures in a neighborhood city for some time past, and at present, draws three in four of the Charlestown medical students to Philadelphia in preference to Edinburgh at the distance of 3,000 miles and in a climate often too cold for young Carolinians. The study of medicine becomes daily more fashionable, and the first people in the State now educate their sons for physicians.

In addition to the regular practice of medicine, there is much that may be called domestic. The distance of physicians, the expense, difficulty, and delay in procuring their attendance, has compelled many inhabitants of the country to prescribe for their families and sometimes for their neighbors. Wesley's primitive physic, Tissot, Buchan, Ricketson, Ewell, or some plain practical author is to be found in almost all their houses. With the aid of some family medicines, and of some well known vegetable productions, under the guidance of experience they prescribe for the sick and often succeed beyond expectation.

In cases of surgery they are more at a loss; but even here by the aid of common sense and from the pressure of necessity

aiding invention, they sometimes perform wonders. The author of this work in the year 1779, examined the stump of a man living near Orangeburg whose leg, after being horribly mangled, had been successfully amputated several years before by one of his neighbors with a common knife, carpenter's handsaw, and tongs. The last instrument was applied red hot to staunch the bleeding. The stump was far from elegant, but with the help of a wooden leg the patient enjoyed all the advantages which are secured by the most dexterous performance of amputation. There was no sergeon within sixty miles of the sufferer.

Capital planters have their sick house or hospital—their medicine chest—their tooth drawer and bleeder—and often their midwife for family use. The negroes are the chief objects of these establishments. From the simplicity of their disorders, resulting from their plain aliment and modes of life, the benevolent intentions of their owners are often carried into full effect. The pride of science is sometimes humbled on seeing and hearing the many cures that are wrought by these pupils of experience, who, without theory or system, by observation and practice acquire a dexterity in curing common diseases.

In the infancy of Carolina, when European physicians monopolized the practice of physic, there were more experiments made, more observations recorded, and more medical writings ushered into public view by the physicians of Charlestown, than of any other part of the American continent. Dr. John Lining communicated to the Royal Society meteorological observations on the weather of Charlestown for the year 1738, 1739, 1740, and 1742, which were the first ever published. He also favored the public with a series of judicious statistical experiments, perseveringly conducted through the whole of the year 1740.*

Dr. Lining was one of the first experimenters in the novel subject of electricity, on which he corresponded with Dr. Franklin, soon after the discoveries of that celebrated man had astonished the philosophers of both the old and new hemisphere. He also, in the year 1753, published an accurate history of the yellow fever, which was the first that had been given to the public from the American continent.

Dr. Lionel Chalmers made and recorded observations on

* From these it appeared that in the course of one year he had taken in nourishment and drink 42,443 ounces; that in the same time he had discharged by perspiration 19,721 ounces—by urine 21,276 ounces—and by stool 1,428 ounces; and that the weight of his body increased in March, October, November, December, and January; and diminished in April, May, June, July, August, September, and February, and that the diminution was greatest in September, being then 102 ounces.

the weather for ten successive years, that is from 1750 to 1760. The same able physician furnished a particular account of the opisthotonos and tetanus, which was communicated to the Medical Society in London, in the year 1754, and afterwards published in the first volume of their transactions. He also prepared for the press an account of the weather and diseases of South Carolina, which was published in London in 1776; but his most valuable work was an essay on fevers, printed in Charlestown in the year 1767. In this he unfolded the outlines of the modern spasmodic theory of fevers. Hoffman had before glanced at the same principles; but their complete illustration was reserved for Cullen, and laid the foundation of his fame.

Doctor Garden, about the year 1764, gave to the public an account of the virtues of pink root and at the same time gave a botanical description of the plant. This truly scientific physician was much devoted to the study of natural history, and particularly of botany, and made sundry communications* on those subjects to his philosophical friends in Europe.

In compliment to him, the greatest botanist of the age gave the name of Gardenia to one of the most beautiful flowering shrubs in the world.

William Bull was the first native of South Carolina who obtained a degree in medicine. He had been a pupil of Boerhaave, and in the year 1734 defended a thesis "De Colica Pictonum" before the University of Leyden. He is quoted by Van Swieten as his fellow-student, with the title of the learned Dr. Bull.

John Moultrie was the first Carolinian who obtained the degree of Doctor of Medicine, from the University of Edinburgh, where, in the year 1749, he defended a thesis "De Febre Flava." Between the years 1768 and 1778 ten more natives obtained the same honor. These were Isaac Chanler, Peter Fayssoux, Thomas Caw, Charles Drayton, Tucker Harris, Robert Peronneau, James Air, George Logan, Zachariah Neufville, and Robert Pringle.

Since the revolutionary war the number of native students has very much increased. Among them are several young men of great hopes. It is no inconsiderable evidence of the

* Of these the following have been published in the transactions of the Royal Society: the *Halesia*, first described by Dr. Garden, as appears by the letter of T. Ellis, Esq., F. R. S., read before the Royal Society, November 20th, 1760. An account of the male and female cochineal insects, in a letter to John Ellis, Esq., read before the Royal Society, December 23, 1762. An account of an amphibious bipes, (the mud inguana, or syren of South Carolina,) communicated in a letter to John Ellis, Esq., read before the Royal Society. An account of two new tortoises communicated in a letter to Thomas Pennant, Esq., and read before the Royal Society, May 2, 1771. An account of the gymnotus electricus in a letter to John Ellis, Esq., read before the Royal Society, February 23, 1775.

increasing prosperity of South Carolina and the progress of medical knowledge therein, that within the last twenty-five years, or since the peace of 1783, many more natives of the State have graduated doctors of medicine than all the Carolinians who had previously obtained that honor from the first settlement of the province. Among them are physicians and surgeons who are equal to the judicious treatment of every disease, and the dexterous performance of every operation in surgery.

Three attempts have been made to regulate the admission of candidates for practicing the healing art in Carolina; but all failed. Clergymen and lawyers, before they are authorized to exercise their respective functions, are examined and licensed by competent judges; but the practice of physic is free to every man or woman who chooses to undertake it.

A summary view of fashions, medical opinions, and practices which have at different periods affected the health of the inhabitants and the practice of medicine in Carolina, shall close this chapter. The cocked hats which were common thirty years ago, exposed the wearers of them to the action of the sun much more than the round, flat, and deep crowned hats, which are now fashionable. The substitution of silk for varnished umbrellas has also been advantageous. The late increased general use of flannel next the skin, by adults, has defended them against the consequences of the sudden changes of the weather. Females, thirty or forty years ago, by the use of tight heavy whalebone stays injured their health, and sometimes obstructed their regular growth. To this succeeded a moderate use of lighter stays which were advantageous to the shape without injury to the health. These gave place to a loose manner of dressing, which though unnecessary to health, destroyed the elegance of their form. Some, by the use of suspenders to their petticoats ran the risk of inducing cancers, by an unequal and constant pressure on their bosoms. This mode of dressing, which obliterated all distinction between the blooming slender virgin and the fruitful wife has been for some time changing in favor of lengthening waists and tighter bracing. The present danger is of their proceeding too far; for such practices, carried to excess, endanger the health of single women; and in the case of married ladies, increase the pangs of parturition and lessen the probability of their terminating in the birth of living, well formed children. The great revolution in favor of the health of females, is the laying aside the old absurd custom of shutting them up from the commencement of pains, introductory to real labor, in close rooms from which air was excluded, and continuing them in this confined state, not only during the pangs of

child-birth, but for many days after their termination. Unreasonable prejudices against cool air were common thirty or forty years ago, and were acted upon to the injury and frequent deaths both of mothers and their infant offspring. The tight swaddling bands applied to the latter hastened the same event. A great reform has taken place; these mischievous practices have been laid aside. Cool air for several years has been freely admitted to the comfort of all parties in the chamber of confinement. The natural activity of infants, and the free expansion of their viscera, is no longer cramped by tight dresses. Most happy consequences have resulted—fewer women are lost—more children survive, and larger families are now raised than was common forty years ago.

The Carolinians are indebted to the late French emigrants for the more frequent use of baths, both hot and cold, and also of the bidet. Long experience in the West India Islands had taught them that such practices, and also a more free use of vegetable aliment, were suitable to warm climates. Cold water as well as cool air were undervalued by the elder inhabitants. The Author of all good has put both within the grasp of all men, with little trouble or expense; but the cheapness of the gift has been the occasion of its being slighted. Its value has lately been appreciated. Experience has proved that water judiciously applied, cold or warm, as circumstances require, cures many diseases and prevents more.

The practice of physic about fifty years ago was regulated in Carolina by the Boerhaavian system, and that of surgery by the writings of Heister and Sharp. Diseases were ascribed to a morbific matter in the blood. Medicines were prescribed to alter its qualities, and to expel from it the cause of the disease. To ensure its discharge through the pores, patients were confined to their beds, and fresh cool air was excluded by close doors and curtains. To hasten its expulsion, much reliance was placed on sudorifics. Neutral mixtures and sweet spirits of nitre were often prescribed with this intention. In cases of danger, recourse was had to saffron, Virginia snakeroot and camphor. In pleurisies and acute rheumatisms the lancet was freely used, but very seldom in other diseases. The medical treatment of most febrile complaints, commenced with purges and vomits; but after their operation the principal reliance was on sweating medicines. The bark was freely administered in intermittents, but there were strong prejudices against it. So many believed that it lay in their bones and disposed them to take cold, that the physicians were obliged to disguise it. Opium was considered as a medicine calculated to compose a cough, or to restrain excessive discharges from the system, but was seldom prescribed in sufficient doses, and

not at all in several cases to which it is now successfully applied. Like the bark, it was the subject of so many prejudices as to make it necessary to conceal or disguise it. It was seldom given without the advice of a physician. At present a phial of laudanum is to be found in almost every family, and it is freely taken, not only without medical advice, but frequently in cases in which no prudent physician would advise it. To the lentor and morbific matter of Boerhaave, which regulated the practice of medicine in Carolina for more than sixty years of the eighteenth century, succeeded the spasmodic system of Cullen. These theories were more at variance than the practice of their respective advocates. The attenuation of the lentor, and the expulsion of the morbid matter in one case, and the resolution of spasmodic strictures in the other, were both attempted in a great measure by the same means; but the followers of Cullen improved on the Boerhaavians by the more free exhibition of antimonial remedies, which are much more powerful than the medicines which had been previously in common use. For several years, emetic tartar was the most fashionable medicine, and by varying its form and dose, it was made to answer a variety of useful medicinal purposes. This has given place to jalap and calomel, which is the present favorite, both in regular and domestic practice. The old remedies, bleeding, blistering, mercury, opium, bark and wine, have been carried to a much greater extent than formerly, and applied to diseases for which they were seldom, if ever, prescribed fifty years ago. The new medicines, digitalis, lead, zinc, arsenic, melia, azederach or pride of India, muriatic acid, nitric acid, some of the gases, and artificial musk, are now common remedies in the hands of the most judicious practitioners, though seldom used and scarcely known to their predecessors. The practice of physic has undergone a revolution in Carolina, as well as the government of the State. This is partly founded in fashion, which extends its empire over more important matters than dress; but has a more solid foundation in a real change of the diseases of the country. Since 1792 these have been, both in degree and frequency, more inflammatory than before that period, and require freer evacuations and more energetic prescriptions.

The improvements in surgery made by Monro, Pott, Hunter, Bell, Desault, Physick, Hey, and others, have all been transplanted into Carolina. The surgery of the early period of its history was far inferior to the present. Diseases of the eyes were then not well understood. Few operations on them were attempted, and fewer succeeded. Fractures are now united, luxations reduced, and amputations performed

with less pain to the patient, with more expedition, and with greater success than fifty years ago. The inhabitants who from misfortunes need the performance of the most difficult and uncommon operations in surgery, are at present under no necessity of seeking foreign operators; for what can be done for them in London or Paris can also be done in Charlestown. The improvements made in midwifery since the days of Smellie, are in like manner well known and practiced in the State. These have been so great that instrumental delivery is now rarely necessary and seldom performed. Deaths from pregnancy and parturition are at present more rare in Charlestown, than when its population did not exceed half its present number. But few years have elapsed since there was any established regular dentist in Carolina. There are now three or four who find employment. The diseases of the teeth are not now more common than in former times; but many of them were at that period frequently suffered to progress unmolested from bad to worse, which are now prevented or cured by the dental art, which was one of the last transplanted into the State. Carolina, by her Lining, Chalmers, and Garden, has increased the stock of medical and philosophical knowledge; but cannot, like Pennsylvania, boast that she has produced a Rush, a Barton, and a Physic, eminently raised up for the advancement of the healing art, and of the auxilliary branches of medical science. Her practitioners, though they have not originated improvements in medicine, deserve well of their country; for they have been ever attentive and among the first to enrich it with the medical discoveries both of the old and new world.

The Medical Society of South Carolina was constituted in the year 1789, and consisted of the following members: Peter Fayssoux, Alexander Baron, Tucker Harris, David Ramsay, Andrew Turnbull, Isaac Chanler, George Logan, George Carter, Robert Wilson, Elisha Poinsett, James Lynah, George Hahnbaum, John Budd, and Thomas Tudor Tucker

LEGAL AND CONSTITUTIONAL HISTORY

OF SOUTH CAROLINA, FROM 1670 TO 1806.

CHAPTER III.

Ample powers for the government of Carolina were given by the royal charters. These, as far as they were legislative, were to be exercised by the proprietors with the consent of the freemen. Each appears to have had a negative on the other. Anterior to the settlement of the province, the proprietors employed the celebrated John Locke to draught "fundamental constitutions of South Carolina." What was their precise object does not appear. The articles agreed upon were not in the nature of a bill of rights, for they are far short of magna charta, and enumerate few of any consequence and derogate from others. The 101st declares "that no person above seventeen years of age should have any benefit or protection of the law, or be capable of any place of honor or profit, who is not a member of some church or profession." The 96th declares, "that a Church of England being the only true and orthodox, and the national religion of all the King's dominions, is so also of Carolina, and therefore it alone shall be allowed to receive public maintenance by grant of parliament."* These fundamental constitutions were not of the nature of a constitution, in the American sense of the word, for instead of emanating from the people, they were to be unalterable, though agreed upon before a single white person had settled in the province. The object of most of them is, "the establishment of the interest of the lords proprietors with equality and without confusion," as is stated in the preamble. They were wholly unsuitable and even impracticable for the immediate government of an infant colony. From internal evidence they do not appear to be so intended, for they proposed that "there should be eight Supreme Courts," and also "a court in every county," and that "all towns incorporate should be governed by a mayor, twelve aldermen, and twenty-four common councilmen;" nearly three times the number that now preside over the police of Charlestown though 128 years old. They contemplated three orders of nobility; and appointed a court to take care of all ceremonies, precedency, heraldry, and to regulate fashions, habits,

* In the folio edition of Locke's works these constitutions are printed as part of the same, but a note subjoined to this article disavows its having been drawn up by Mr. Locke. It was also objected to by John Archdale.

badges, games and sports, when as yet there were no commoners. They seemed on the whole to be calculated for a state of society far beyond that to which Carolina has yet attained. They were never accepted by the people, who, adhering to the charter as a constitutional rule, passed such laws in concert with the proprietors as the state of the province required. After twenty-eight years these fundamental constitutions were set aside by the proprietors on the requisition of the people, who in no one instance had acted upon them. The feeble and distracted state of the proprietary government was not, as has been erroneously represented, the effect of the speculative political theories of John Locke, introduced as the Constitution of South Carolina: for neither his fundamental constitutions nor their successive modifications by the proprietors, were at any time the law of the province or the rule of its government. The only part of them which seems to have been perpetuated is the biennial election of members of assembly. The 79th article proposes that all acts of parliament should become null and void at the end of 100 years without a formal repeal. This would have produced both good and evil, but which would have preponderated is questionable. The 70th article declares "that it shall be a base and vile thing to plead for money or reward:" and that no one should be permitted to plead another man's cause, not a relation, "till he took an oath that he had not nor would not receive, directly or indirectly, any money or reward for pleading the cause he was going to plead." The proprietors were always friendly to the fundamental constitutions;* but they could not persuade the people to consent to their establishment. The charter which the assembly preferred as the best security of their rights, was silent on many important points. In supplying its defects on principles of analogy and in every act of legis-

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* The proprietors were so desirous of the acceptance of these fundamental constitutions, that they sent out four successive modifications of them to render them more agreeable to the people. The original draughted by John Locke, was dated in 1669—an amended set in 1670—a further amended set in 1681—2. The date of the next amended set is unknown; but that of the last was in 1698. The genuine original 3d set, engrossed on a roll of parchment 18 feet long and 2 wide, is now in possession of Governor Charles Pinckney, and is subscribed in the real hand writing of the proprietors as follows:

"Sir Peter Colleton, Albemarle,
Seth Sothell, Craven,
Bath for Lord Carteret.

I subscribe this fundamental constitution except the 96th paragraph," this is quoted above, and authorizes an estalishment of the Church of England, "and what relates to fighting which for conscience sake I refuse and not otherwise.
John Archdale, for Thomas Archdale."

They who wish to read these much talked of but misrepresented constitutions, will find a copy of them in Mr. Locke's works, and in Dr. Hewat's History of South Carolina. As they were never received nor acted upon by the Carolinians, they were not deemed of sufficient importance to merit republication in this work.

lation, the concurrence of the proprietors and of the freemen of the province was necessary; but frequently this concurrence could not be obtained. In several particulars respecting the executive and judicial departments there was a collision of interests. The charter was construed by both in a manner most favorable to their own wishes. Each endeavored to gain upon the other by extending their respective claims. These dissensions continued to increase till, in conjunction with other more serious grounds of discontent which have been already related, the people by their inherent right to resist oppression threw off the proprietary yoke, and sought and obtained the protection of the crown. The king henceforward was the source of honor and office. Under the reigns of George the first and second, government was in general wisely administered and tended to the happiness both of the mother country and the colony. This agreeable state of things contributed not a little to the extension of settlements far to the westward. An evil resulted from this good, which in its turn produced an improvement in the administration of justice. For the first ninety-nine years of provincial Carolina, Charlestown was the source and centre of all judicial proceeding. No courts were held beyond its limits, and one provost marshal was charged with the service of processes over the whole province. For the first seventy or eighty years, when the population rarely extended beyond an equal number of miles, this was patiently borne; but in the course of the next twenty years it became intolerable. The distance and expense of attending courts in Charlestown were so inconvenient, that people in the back country were induced occasionally to inflict punishments in their own way, and by their own authority, on knaves and villains. Associations were formed under the name of regulators, who enforced justice in a summary way. For the accommodation of the remote settlers, and to remove all apology for these irregular proceedings incompatible with orderly government, an act was passed in 1769 called the Circuit Court Act; by which new District Courts were established at Beaufort, Georgetown, Cheraws, Camden, Orangeburgh and Ninety-Six, now Cambridge. One difficulty stood in the way, the removal of which was necessary before the projected reform could go into operation. The important and lucrative office of provost marshal for the whole province was held by patent from the crown by Richard Cumberland, well known in the literary world for his talents and writings. The proposed Circuit Court Act contemplated the abolition of the office of provost marshal of the province, and the appointment of seven sheriffs; one for Charlestown, and one for each of the six new districts. To reconcile private

right with public convenience, the province paid £5,000 sterling to Mr. Cumberland as a compensation for his resigning the office of provost marshal. The new arrangement soon afterwards went into operation. In the year 1789 these Circuit Courts were made more beneficial and convenient by being invested with complete original and final jurisdiction. In two years more it became necessary to make two additional Circuit Courts. From the rapidly increasing population, these districts were found too large for public convenience. In 1798 they were subdivided into twenty-four; and three years after a part of one of these districts was formed into a separate one, making in the whole twenty-five districts which are sufficiently small to meet the convenience of the people. Their names are:

1. Abbeville. 2. Edgefield. 3. Newbury. 4. Laurens. 5. Pendleton. 6. Greenville. 7. Spartanburg. 8. Union. 9. York. 10. Chester. 11. Lancaster. 12. Fairfield. 13. Kershaw. 14. Chesterfield. 15. Marlborough. 16. Darlington. 17. Sumpter. 18. Marion. 19. Horry. 20. Georgetown. 21. Charleston. 22. Colleton. 23. Beaufort. 24. Barnwell. 25. Orangeburgh.

The multiplication of court districts, proceeded from an honest desire to accommodate the people. The Legislature by successive reforms, each improving on what had been previously done, finally organized in the last years of the 18th century an uniform efficient judiciary system which brought law and justice within a convenient distance of the habitations of all the citizens. To meet the increased labor of attending so many new circuits, provision was made for two additional judges. This new arrangement contemplated six judges for twenty-five districts. To each of these was granted an annual salary of £600 sterling, that they might be enabled to devote themselves to the duties of their office. About thirteen years before the establishment of this enlarged system, an attempt had been made to accommodate the public by the establishment of courts in counties of small dimensions and limited jurisdiction, to be held by such of the inhabitants as were chosen and willing to serve as judges without salaries. This project was introduced and carried through by the talents, address, and perseverance of Henry Pendleton; who had witnessed many of the benefits resulting from the county courts in his native State, Virginia. What had been found beneficial in the oldest State of the Union, did not answer in the junior State of South Carolina, whose sea coast was too thinly peopled to need these courts; and whose back country had been too recently settled to have a sufficient number of men of talents, leisure, weight and respectability, to give dig-

nity to twenty-five or thirty county courts. After an experience of twelve or fifteen years, the whole system was abandoned by its friends; but all the counties were incorporated into the twenty-five districts, and the latter were for the most part substituted in the room of the former; but with this difference, that one of the six State Judges presided in every District Court. The change drew after it considerable expense, but as the benefit was also considerable the people cheerfully paid it. This was the second time a County Court system had failed in South Carolina. It had been introduced in an early period of the colony but imperceptibly, and without any positive repealing law, became obsolete. In politics perhaps than in any other art, the solid ground of experience is to be relied on in preference to the splendid but dazzling visions of theory.

In addition to the Courts of Common Pleas and of Sessions, there have always been in Carolina Courts of Ordinary, of Admiralty, and of Chancery. The two first have been held by proprietary or regal governors or by judges appointed by the proprietors, the King, or the State, in correspondence with the existing state of things. The Court of Chancery was in like manner held by the council of the proprietors, of the King and of the State in succession till the year 1784. In that early period, after the termination of the revolutionary war, the Court of Chancery was new modelled, and three judges were appointed to preside over it. Since the year 1791, when it received some modifications for the more speedy advancement of justice, it has been called the Court of Equity. This Court, in its principles of practice, possesses advantages over the Court of Chancery at Westminster Hall. The mode of compelling the appearance of the defendant in the Court of Equity in South Carolina, and of enforcing its decrees, is more easy and summary than that of the Court of Chancery in England.* The Court of Equity in this State, has also the ıdditional advantage of a *viva voce* examination of witnesses, o which the Court of Chancery in England is a stranger and vhich is one of the most valuable privileges of the common ıw. South Carolina in the formation of courts of justice in ther particulars, has generally copied after the models of ›rresponding courts in England; but with this difference, ıe State considered her courts as the courts of the people in .eir sovereign capacity, enforcing justice between separate ıits of one common mass of sovereignty. Since the establhment of the national government in 1789, causes in the

* Besides the usual process against the person, which it has incidentally with latter Court for enforcing its decrees, a special act of the Legislature has given ›wer to issue an execution of *fieri facias* against the property of the defendant.

Court of Admiralty, and the appointment of judges for that Court, have been transferred to the United States as appertaining to the general government.

On similar principles, and with similar limitations, the common law of England has been respected by the courts of Carolina ever since the revolution. By Act of Assembly in 1712, it, together with the *habeas corpus* act and other statutes particularly enumerated, were declared to be in force in Carolina. Some of these statutes have become obsolete; others which made offences at common law of a highly penal nature or the subject of capital punishment, have seldom been acted upon. It has been the practice to frame indictments for them as offences at common law, in order to inflict a milder punishment. The rules of descent with respect to real property were, till 1791, the same in Carolina as in England; but in that year the Legislature passed an act to abolish the rights of primogeniture by which they made the estate, real as well as personal of persons dying intestate, distributable much in the same manner as by the English statute of distribution. In general all laws which were unsuitable to the present form of republican government have been altered or new modelled by acts of Assembly; but the common law of England is likely to continne till time and experience have matured a system more suitable to the present order of things.

During the reigns of the first and second Georges, no political disputes of greater importance than the wisdom and policy of augmenting or redeeming paper bills of credit interrupted the harmony between the different branches of the government. The interests of a commercial mother country and an agricultural colony coincided, with little or no clashing; but from an early period in the reign of George the 3d, when a project of American revenue was superadded to a commercial monopoly, there was a constant succession of political controversies between the Governor and Council on one side and the Commons House of Assembly on the other. By the constitution of the royal government, the concurrence of the King's Governor and of the Council appointed to advise him, was as necessary to every legislative act as that of the Commons House of Assembly. The two former being appointed by the crown, were partial to its claims and endeavored to enforce them. The latter being chosen by the people were equally zealous in support of their rights, and originated sundry measures calculated to give union to American measures for opposing the new system of parliamentary taxation. As often as these jarring claims came into contact, the legislative powers of the province were interrupted. The Governor and Council would pass no bills that favored the views of the

popular leaders, or even indirectly seemed to countenance their claims. The Commons House of Assembly, equally firm, would not sanction any measure calculated to favor British claims of taxation or to derogate from American rights. They even went further, for when they could not obtain the passage of a tax act without seeming to yield a right, they declined legislating on any subject whatever. From 1771 to 1775, the four years immediately preceding the American Revolution, there was but one legislative act passed, though ten or twelve was the usual annual average number of new acts, and fifty had been actually passed in the four years that immediaiely preceded this intermission of legislation. A state of things so unnatural requires explication. The Commons House of Assembly claimed the exclusive right of taxing themselves, or of giving or granting their own money as they pleased. To display their right they granted 1,500 pounds to the Bill of Rights Society in England, and put a clause in the tax bill to provide for the same. The Governor and Council would not pass the bill with that clause, and the House would not consent to expunge it. The bill was not passed—no tax was laid—the public debts were unpaid—each branch of the Legislature charged the other as the cause of the confusion and injustice which followed. The Commons House of Assembly, supported by the people, refused to pass any law till the royal servants sanctioned the obnoxious tax bill. The paltry present to the society in England was in itself no object; but the principle that the representatives of the people had an exclusive right to do as they pleased with their own money, was deemed of the greatest importance. The republican spirit of the province, and indeed of all the provinces, was rising. The project of an American revenue, and the debates for and against the constitutionality of that innovation had produced an exquisite sensibility on the rights of the colonies in every patriotic breast. The question was now fairly at issue between the people and the royal servants. The former, with the same spirit that induces their offspring now to submit to a general embargo, chose to be debarred of all the blessings of legislation rather than indirectly yield the smallest tittle of their claims to the exclusive right of disposing of their own money. The revolutionary contest immediately followed, and the question of the right of the Carolinians to make a present of 1,500 pounds of their own money to a society in England was merged in another of still greater consequence; whether they should be conquered rebels or independent freemen.

The thirteen years that intervened between the peace of Paris in 1763 and Declaration of Independence in 1776, were

eventful years in South Carolina. In that period the seeds of the revolution were sown, watered, grew and ripened. The people were made instruments in the hands of Providence to detach the colonies from the parent State, though they neither intended nor wished for any such event. The claim of a British parliament to tax them without their consent, roused them to reflect on their rights and to do something for their security. Every step they took for that purpose was thwarted by the King's Governor and Council. Their concurrence in necessary bills was sometimes withheld, and on other occasions they dissolved the Commons House of Assembly for entering on necessary defensive measures. The royal prerogative which had never been used to the disadvantage of the province by the two first Georges, under a new King and new ministry became a rod of iron to scourge the people for daring to assert their rights and resist meditated oppression. Pleased as the Carolinians had been with the royal government as infinitely preferable to that of the proprietors, they now found its excellency was merely accidental; and that, with a change of Kings and Ministers, it might in a short period pass over from good to bad. The exercise of royal prerogative to keep down the rising spirit of freedom produced a contrary effect, and made the people more determined to be the conservators of their own privileges. While the public mind was gradually alienating from a partiality for royal government, and expanding with more thorough knowledge of the rights of man, the physical force of the country was increasing with unexampled rapidity. By the combined influence of new views of government, and of a vast increase of population in the short space of twelve or thirteen years, the people of South Carolina without any preconcerted plan or design, were prepared with honest views and a respectable force to defend their rights. The year 1763 found them dutiful subjects—1775 left them subjects, but subjects prepared to resist oppression.

Though from the causes that have been mentioned there was but one solitary legislative act passed in Carolina for the five years that immediately preceded the revolution, executive functions were nevertheless, for the greatest part of that period, discharged as before. As the revolution advanced, the executive powers of the royal governor gradually declined, and in September, 1775, finally terminated. At that period Lord William Campbell, the last representative of his Britannic majesty, went on board one of the armed vessels of his royal master and left the province in a state of nature; without any form of government, other than the recommendations of committees, or congresses, appointed without the authority of written law or any definite specification of powers. After re-

maining in this unsettled state for some time it was determined to appoint a committee to prepare a draught of a constitution, or form of government, on the sole authority of the people; though they still acknowledged themselves subjects of the King of Great Britain. In consequence thereof, a temporary constitution was agreed to on the 26th of March, 1776, "until an accommodation of the unhappy differences between the two countries should be obtained." The constitution, then adopted, was as exact a copy of the British form of government as the situation of Carolina would permit. A legislative body was constituted of three separate and independent branches; and an executive officer, by the name of President, was elected, with ample powers approaching to royalty. The reconciliation, then expected by some and wished for by more, was not realized. This temporary constitution, in a little more than two years, gave place to a new one, formed on the idea of independence, which, in the meantime, had been declared. The distinction between a constitution and an act of the Legislature was not, at this period, so well understood as it has been since. The Legislature, elected under the constitution of 1776, with the acquiescence of the people, undertook to form a new constitution; and, to give it activity, with the forms, and under the name of an Act of Assembly. This, after being fully discussed, was finally ratified in 1778. The religious rights of the people, on which the preceding constitution was silent, now, for the first time, obtained attention. The establishment of the Church of England, which took place in 1706, had been continued till the revolution. But, growing illumination on the principles of government, and the temper of the times, pointed out the impropriety of continuing under a free constitution that legal pre-eminence of one denomination of Christians over all others, which had been conferred partly for political purposes under a very different system of government. In making a new arrangement on the subject of religion, the distinction between toleration and establishment was retained. To the former all were entitled who acknowledged, "that there was one God—that there was a future state of rewards and punishments—and that God was to be publicly worshipped." To the latter all Christian Protestants were equally entitled, and it was declared "that the Christian Protestant religion was the established religion of the State," and "that all denominations of them should enjoy equal religious and civil privileges;" and "that the societies of the Church of England, then formed, should continue incorporate and hold the property in their possession." To preserve the idea of an established religion, and at the same time to do equal justice to all denominations of Protestants, the public support,

heretofore given to the Church of England, was withdrawn; and the privileges of the establishment, and particularly of incorporation, were held out on easy terms to all Christian Protestants. To accomplish this, an extensive nominal religious establishment was adopted on a plan similar to that suggested by Mr. Locke in the fundamental constitutions of the province. This contemplated to grant on petition the privileges of incorporation and of an established church to any fifteen persons who would associate for public worship, give themselves a name, and subscribe in a book the five following terms of communion: "1st. That there is one eternal GOD, and a future state of rewards and punishments. 2d. That GOD is publicly to be worshipped. 3d. That the Christian religion is the true religion. 4th. That the Holy Scriptures of the Old and New Testament are of divine inspiration, and are the rule of faith and practice. 5th. That it is lawful and the duty of every man, being thereunto called by those that govern, to bear witness to truth." They who had been called dissenters conformed to the new establishment, and readily obtained the privileges of incorporation, and as such were enabled to sue for and hold their property without the intervention of trustees. Thus, all Christian Protestants were put on an equal footing, and in consequence thereof harmony and good will was increased. At that time, there was no church of Roman Catholics in the State, nor of any denomination not comprehended under the general term of Christian Protestants, except that of the Jews.

The whole of this system distinguishing between toleration and establishment—between Christian Protestants and others, was abolished by the constitution of 1790; and religion was placed where it ought to be in a state of perfect freedom, in the following words: "The free exercise and enjoyment of religious profession and worship without discrimination or preference, shall forever hereafter be allowed within this State to all mankind, provided that the liberty of conscience thereby declared shall not be so construed as to excuse acts of licentiousness or justify practices inconsistent with the peace or safety of this State."

By the constitution of 1778, the title of the executive officer was changed from President to Governor, and he was deprived of his negative on the laws. Instead of a legislative council to be chosen by the representatives from their own body, a second branch of Legislature, denominated a Senate was to be constituted by election of the people. The idea of a Legislature consisting of a single branch, though advocated by some, was generally reprobated.

This constitution carried the people through the revolutionary war, and continued till the year 1790. The chief

difficulty attending it, was its great expense in supporting an enormously large representation. But it was deemed impolitic to lesson it while the war raged.

The State of South Carolina was one of thirteen confederated States whose general interest were managed by a congress of deputies from each. The powers of congress were found inadequate to the good government of the union, when the pressure of war and the cement of common danger was over. A more efficient form of government was called for by the States. South Carolina readily agreed to a proposition from Virginia for digesting such a form of government by a general convention, and appointed Henry Laurens, John Rutledge, Charles Cotesworth Pinckney, Pierce Butler, and Charles Pinckney to represent the State in the same. The four last named attended and assisted in the deliberations of the convention, and concurred in the plan of government recommended by them. The people promptly adopted the present constitution of the United States, which was originally proposed in 1787, by this convention of delegates from the individual States. Since that period the government is complex.

A federal, legislative, executive, and judicial power pervades the State; but is confined to objects of a general nature more within the purview of the United States than of any particular one.

Every power that is necessary to a common national government has been ceded to the United States, but all that is purely domestic in its operation and consequences is reserved and exercised by the State.

This reform of the common bond of union which was adopted by South Carolina in 1788, necessarily involved another. To new model the constitution of the State in conformity to that of the United States, a convention of the people of South Carolina was called in 1790, which formed a constitution adapted to the new order of things. The large representation which, from motives of policy, began and had been continued through the war, was diminished one-half and several other improvements were adopted.

Though the form of government in South Carolina has been materially altered six or seven times,* yet each change has been for the better. In the eighteenth century, while experiments and the reasoning powers of man were improving the

* The government of South Carolina has been one proprietary, two regal, three representative. One by committees and congresses, or conventions of the people; two by the constitution of 1776; three by that of 1778; four by that of 1790. Besides these domestic changes South Carolina, as one of the United States, was successively subject to a congress with advisory powers from 1774 to 1781—to the confederation from 1781 to 1789—to the constitution of the United States from 1789 to the present time.

arts and sciences, the art of government was by no means stationery. South Carolina, as one of the United States and acting her part in the American revolution, has practically enforced the following improvements in the art of government:

1. That all power is derived from the people, and ought to be exercised for their benefit; that they have a right to resist the tyranny and oppression of their rulers and to change their government whenever it is found not to afford that protection to life, liberty, and property, for the security of which it was instituted.

2. That it is the true policy of States to afford equal protection to the civil rights of all individuals and of all sects of religionists without discrimination or preference, and without interference on the part of the State in all matters that relate only to the intercourse between man and his maker.

3. That the ultimate end and object of all laws and government is the happiness of the people; and that therefore no laws should be passed, or taxes or other burdens imposed on them for the benefit of a part of the community, but only such as operate equally and justly on all for the general good.

4. That war shall only be declared or entered upon by the solemn act of the people, whose blood and treasure is to be expended in its prosecution.

Plain and obvious as these principles are to American understandings, yet the government of nations over the greatest part of the world, and for almost the whole period of its existence, has been conducted on different principles and for very different purposes. Burdensome taxes have been levied in all countries on the body of the people to support the pride and luxury of a few. Wars, all of which are wicked, most of them mad, and none of them necessary, have been begun and prosecuted to gratify the passions and follies of rulers without any regard to national happiness. Thousands in every age have been shedding the blood of their fellow-men for trifles in which neither have any interest. Fire and faggot have been extensively used to promote uniformity in articles of faith and unimportant ceremonies of religion. Grievous persecutions have been alternately inflicted on contending sects of religionists as often as they had power in their hands. The rights and interests of millions have been sacrificed to aggrandize a few. All this mischief has been perpetrated under color of law and constitution. A government founded n reason, and the rights of man, and exclusively directed to its proper object, the advancement of human happiness, was first established by common consent in the eighteenth century; and in the woods of America. Its foundation in South Carolina rests on the following principles:

No power is exercised over the people but what has been granted by them with the express view of its being used for the general good.

No laws bind them, nor are any taxes imposed on them, but with the consent of themselves or representatives freely and fairly chosen every second year by a majority of votes.

There are no privileged orders. All are equally subject to the laws; and the vote of any one elector goes as far as that of any other.

"No freeman can be taken or imprisoned or disseized of his freehold liberties, or privileges, or outlawed, or exiled, or in any manner destroyed or deprived of his life, liberty, or property, but by the judgment of his peers or by the law of the land."

Religion is so perfectly free that all sects have equal rights and privileges and each individual may join with any, or with none, as he pleases without subjecting himself to any civil inconvenience.

These and similar principles of liberty and equality pervade the Constitution and laws of the State. The first is the work of the people in their sovereign capacity, and prescribes limits to all the departments of government. These departments are three—legislative, executive, and judicial; for it is necessary in regular government that laws be enacted, expounded, and applied, and finally executed. The legislative power is constituted and exercised by forty-five senators and one hundred and twenty-four representatives, who are all chosen by the people, and form two co-ordinate branches of legislature independent of each other. Bills cannot be passed into laws till after they have been read three times on three different days in each house, and are agreed to by both; deliberating apart. Laws thus made are expounded and applied to particular cases by judges elected by the Legislature and commissioned during good behavior who are afterwards independent both of the Legislature and the people. The Governor who is charged with the execution of the laws, and the administration of the government, is elected by the Legislature for the term of two years. The duties required, and the burdens imposed by the laws, are equally binding on the law-makers as on the people. They who are legislators cease to be so in the Senate at the end of four years, and in the House of Representatives at the end of two; and all power reverts to the people till by a new election they invest the men of their choice with authority to act for them. Every precaution is taken to identify the interests of the people, and their rulers. If the electors are not wanting to themselves the laws thus cautiously made, impartially expounded, and liberally executed

by the men of their choice, must be the collected will and wisdom of the people, deliberately pursuing their own happiness as far as is practicable in the imperfect state of human nature. Such, after two revolutions in one century and three attempts to form an efficient constitution, is the result of the efforts of the people of South Carolina for the preservation and advancement of their political interests.

The mode of passing laws varied with the forms of government. During the forty-nine years of proprietary rule, four hundred and ninety-seven acts were passed which have reached us. Of each of these it is declared that they were "enacted by the Palatine and the proprietors of the province by and with the advice and consent of the rest of the members of the General Assembly;" and that they were "read three times and ratified in open assembly." They were severally signed by the Governor for the time being, and by three, four, five, or six of thirty-two gentlemen who were deputies of the proprietors or members of the proprietary council. Their names arranged in the same order as they appear in the printed statutes, are Thomas Smith, Paul Grimball, Richard Conant, Joseph Blake, Stephen Bull, William Smith, William Hawett, Joseph Morton, Thomas Cary, James More, John Beresford, John Wick, Edmund Bellinger, Robert Gibbes, Henry Noble, Thomas Broughton, Nicholas Trott, Benjamin Barons, James Risbee, Charles Burnham, Francis Furberville, Samuel Eveleigh, Thomas Diston, Stephen Gibbes, Charles Hart, Arthur Middleton, Richard Beresford, Ralph Izard, Hugh Butler, George Chicken, Francis Yonge, and Alexander Skeene. There is no evidence that any person signed the laws as the organ of the freemen of the province by the title of Speaker, or by any other title in their behalf as a separate body. It is probable that the laws were passed by all the legislators deliberating together in one and the same apartment. In the fourteen months between the proprietary and regal government, while all power was administered by the sole authority of the people, twenty-nine laws were enacted and said to be so "by James Moore, Governor, by and with the advice and consent of the council and representatives of the inhabitants;" yet they were signed only by James Moore declaring his assent to the same.

The period of royal legislation in South Carolina was only 50 years; for no laws were passed by the King's representative for one year after the proprietary government was renounced: nor more than one for five years before the royal government terminated. In this half century from 1721 to 1771, 687 laws were passed. The enacting style was, "by the

Governor, or President of the province of South Carolina, by and with the advice and consent of his majesty's council and the Assembly of the province." The laws were signed by the Speaker of the Assembly first, and then by the Governor or President.

The royal Governors or persons acting as such, with the title of President or Lieutenant-Governor were, 1st. Francis Nicholson from 1721—1725. 2d. Arthur Middleton, 1725—1730. 3d. Robert Johnson, 1730—1735. 4th. Thos. Broughton, 1735—1737. 5th. William Bull, 1737—1743. 6th. James Glen, 1743—1756. 7th. William Henry Littleton, 1756—1760. 8th. William Bull, 1760—1761. 9th. Thomas Boone, 1762—1763. 10th. William Bull, 1763—1766. 11th. Lord Charles Greville Montague, 1766—1769. 12th. William Bull, 1769—1775. 13th. Lord William Campbell, from June 1775 to September 1775.

The Speakers who signed the laws in behalf of the common House of Assembly were, 1st. James Moore, 1721—1725. 2d. Thos. Broughton, 1726—1730. 3d. William Donning, 1731—1732. 4th. Paul Jenys, 1733—1736. 5th. Charles Pinckney, 1736—1740. 6th. William Bull, 1740—1742. 7th. Benjamin Whitaker, 1743. 8th. William Bull, 1744—1746. 9th. Henry Middleton, 1746—1747. 10th. William Bull, 1748. 11th. Andrew Rutledge, 1749—1751. 12th. James Michie, 1752—1755. 13th. Benjamin Smith, 1775—1762. 14th. Rawlins Lowndes, 1764—1765. 15th. Peter Manigault, 1766. It does not appear that any person signed the laws in behalf of the King's Council other than the Governor, or President while acting as Governor.

During the existence of the temporary constitution, there were two Presidents, John Rutledge and Rawlins Lowndes: two Speakers of the legislative Council, G. G. Powell, and Hugh Rutledge: three Speakers of the General Assembly, James Parsons, John Matthews, and Thomas Bee: and one hundred laws passed with the concurrence of three branches of the Legislature in thirty-one months. The number is great but not excessive. This constitution was adopted after a suspension of regular legislative power for five years, and in the midst of an extensive war. To legislate for a country so circumstanced, required the almost constant attention of its new formed legislative bodies.

Between the establishment of the constitution of 1778, and the period of the removal of the seat of government to Columbia in 1790, there were six Governors, John Rutledge, 1779—John Matthews, 1782—Benjamin Guerard, 1783—William Moultrie, 1785—Thomas Pinckney, 1787—Charles Pinckney, 1789—each serving for about two years agreeably to the con-

stitution: and four Presidents of the Senate, Charles Pinckney, 1779—John Lewis Gervais, 1782—John Lloyd, 1783—Daniel DeSaussure, 1789: and six Speakers of the House of Representatives, John Matthews, 1776—Thomas Fair, 1779—Hugh Rutledge, 1782—John Faucherhaud Grimkè, 1785—John Julius Pringle, 1787—and Jacob Read, 1789. In this period of twelve years, 362 laws were passed with the signature of the President of the Senate and Speaker of the House of Representatives, which two houses constituted the Legislature. For two years of this period, legislation was suspended in consequence of the British successors in reducing the capital and over-running the greatest part of the country. After they had evacuated the State, so extensive were its desolations—so puzzling was the line of propriety in legislating between distressed creditors and impoverished debtors—and between those who by temporizing had saved, and others who by steady patriotism had lost their property, that legislation became a delicate and difficult task. From the year 1790, to the present time, a new æra has presented brighter prospects. A new constitution both for the United States, and for this State of South Carolina—a new seat of government—increasing harmony and reviving credit, produced a real melioration of the public affairs and made legislation an easier and a more pleasant duty. From this time to the present there have been Governors Charles Pinckney, 1791; A. Vanderhorst, 1793; William Moultrie, 1795; Edward Rutledge, 1798; John Drayton, 1800; James B. Richardson, 1802; Paul Hamilton, 1804; Charles Pinckney, 1806; and John Drayton, 1808—and six Presidents of the Senate, David Ramsay, 1791; John Ward, 1798; John Gaillard, 1803; Robert Barnwell, 1805; William Smith, 1806; Samuel Warren, 1808—and six Speakers of the House of Representatives, Jacob Read, 1790; Robert Barnwell, 1795; William Johnson, 1798; Theodore Gaillard, 1800; Robert Starke, 1802; William Cotesworth Pinckney, 1804; Joseph Alston, 1805.

In this period of eighteen years, 395 laws have been enacted by both houses, and signed by the President of the one, and the Speaker of the other. In the period of 138 years which have passed away since the settlement of South Carolina, 2,059 laws have been passed. Of these, 1,202 were enacted in the 106 years of the colonial existence of South Carolina, and 857 in the thirty-two years of its freedom and independence. This great comparative increase of laws in the latter period, may in part be accounted for from the pressure of war, the novel state of the country, and the great increase of population; but must be principally referred to the new form of government. If it is not the fault, it is certainly the misfortune

of republics to legislate too much. There being no interfering interest to check the wheels of legislation, the law-makers seldom meet with difficulties in passing laws especially of a private nature. Every petty association that chooses to be incorporated, has little more to do than to petition for that privilege. The sale of any public property; the opening a new road; the establishment of a ferry; the running the division lines between two districts; the altering any trival circumstance in the manner of transacting public business, and a thousand minor objects must all be done by laws expressly made for the purpose. It is a high privilege to be bound by no laws, but such as have been agreed to by common consent; but to obtain that consent for every trifle, must make legislation laborious, and in time enlarge the statute book to an enormous size. Where no proper remedy can be applied, the inconvenience must be patiently borne, but the wisdom of man is certainly equal to the adoption of some general rules or principles that will make the government even of a free State safe and practicable without a growing annual multiplicity of laws.

A Carolinian will abate of his astonishment at the darkness which overshadows the early history of the governments of the old world, when he is told that no law can be found on record in South Carolina, which passed prior to the year 1682, which was twelve years after the first settlement of the province, that the first authority for printing the laws was in 1712, and that there is not any regular record of judicial proceedings prior to 1703, nor any entered in bound books before 1710.

Those who live at a distance, and have been taught to believe that the Carolinians were and are a loose irreligious people, will be surprised to hear that the two oldest acts which have been handed down to us, are the first "for the observation of the Lord's day," and the second "for the suppressing of idle, drunken, or swearing persons;" and that there are several subsequent laws "for the better observance of the Lord's day," and "for punishing blasphemy and profaneness."

They who for many years past have been witnesses of the extension of the buildings and wharves into the waters, which wash three sides of Charlestown, will be satisfied that the present inhabitants have sufficiently retaliated for these early encroachments of the sea on the city, for the prevention of which the Legislature passed several laws from 1694 to 1725, and also built a strong curtain line on its east front. As long ago as 1695, an act was passed for registering births, marriages and burials, in which our fathers were wiser than we are. Charlestown was then so thinly settled, that within three years of the same time, an act was passed for clearing it of under-

wood. Much was done in these early days by judicious laws, to encourage the settlement of the province, and to promote learning and the religious instruction of the people; to preserve peace and regulate trade with the Indians; to open roads, establish ferries, and build bridges; to provide for the defence of the province, for the better ordering of slaves; to establish courts, regulate elections, encourage the raising of the staple commodities of the country, and to promote industry and order among the people.

These and similar subjects pointed out by the infant state of the colony, were attended to by its legislators under the proprietary government. The same have been in like manner steadily pursued since the country was taken under the care of the crown, but on a larger scale. The increasing trade of the province required some new regulations and new officers. Colonial wars with tribes of Indians, called for legislative direction. The extension of settlements required new and more ample arrangements for the convenience of the people and the administration of justice. To these and other subjects connected with the improving state of the country, the legislative powers of the royal province were advantageously directed, till the American revolution unsettled everything. The regular power of making, expounding and enforcing laws, was then for some time suspended, and afterwards extinguished, but was soon revived with increased energy on a system of representative government. The objects of legislation have ever since embraced every attribute of sovereignty; but during the revolutionary war they were chiefly confined to necessary defensive measures and matters of immediate pressing necessity; but no sooner was the war over than full scope was given to the spirit of law-making. Inland navigation, canals, toll-bridges, improvements of internal police, and in the administration of justice, together with a variety of other projects for meliorating the condition of the country, received the warmest patronage of the first General Assemblies which met after the peace of 1783. The State powers of legislation were then in a great measure uncontrolled; but in five or six years they were divided; and some of the most important, and all of a general nature, were transferred to the United States for the common good. The range of State legislation was circumscribed and since the year 1790, has been exclusively directed to matters of a local concern. The powers of the Legislature of the country have increased under every change of government but the last. This limited the sovereignty of the State; but in proportion as its legislative powers in matters of national concern have been curtailed, its real domestic happiness has been advanced. It has become powerful by

relinquishing power, and rich by giving up revenue; for both have been managed more for the interest, not only of South Carolina, but of all the States, than they ever could have been by the individual States, acting without system, and under the influence of divided councils. Before the revolution, Chief Justice Trott compiled the laws up to the year 1734, and Mr. Simpson brought into one view all of them which related to the powers and duties of justices of the peace. Soon after the revolution, Justice Grimkè took up the same business and gave a compilation of the most material laws from the settlement of the province to the year 1789, and also two separate works, one for the information and direction of justices of the peace, and another for similar purposes respecting executors and administrators of the estates of deceased persons. Before these publications of Judge Grimkè, knowledge of the ordinary acts of provincial and State legislation could only be obtained from the public records; for few or no copies of them could be otherwise procured. A work of great importance has been lately commenced and is to be continued; this is reports of adjudged cases, by Justice Bay, containing a judicial exposition of the laws, and an application of their principles to particular cases. These as far as sanctioned by the bench of judges, become established precedents and partake of the nature of law. They gradually diminish the necessity of referring to precedents from foreign countries, and will in time make the determination of our courts wholly American.

The penal code of barbarous antiquity is in a great measure still unreformed; but the mitigation of punishments and the establishment of a penitentiary for the reformation of criminals, are subjects now before the Legislature. The policy of adopting turnpikes, to be supported by a tax on travelers for the improvement of roads, is also in a train of investigation. Hitherto no provision for making or repairing roads has been sanctioned, but the occasional labor of the contiguous inhabitants. This has been found wholly inadequate: but no effectual substitute has yet been agreed upon. With respect to roads and bridges, South Carolina is far behind the northern and eastern States. On these subjects the existing laws require, and it is hoped will soon receive, amendment.

This general view of the laws of South Carolina will be concluded with as particular an enumeration of the gentlemen employed in the judicial department as can now be obtained. There have been chief justices of South Carolina as follows:

——— Bohun, in the seventeenth century; Nicholas Trott, early in the eighteenth; Richard Alleyn, 1719; Robert Wright, 1731; Thomas Dale, 1739; Benjamin Whitaker, 1739; James Greene, 1749; Charles Pinckney, 1752; Peter Leigh, 1753;

James Michie, 1759; William Simpson, 1761; Charles Skinner, 1762; Thomas Knox Gordon, 1771; William Henry Drayton, 1776; John Rutledge, 1791. Since the year 1791 there has been no appointment of a chief justice; the senior judge acting as such.

It does not appear from the records that there were any assistant judges prior to 1736. In the previous infancy of the province, a single chief justice presided over the courts in Charlestown, which were then, and for thirty-three years after, the only ones held in the province. About that time the middle country began to be settled. An increasing population required an increase of judges. Since that year the following gentlemen have been appointed assistant judges:

Thomas Dale, 1736; Robert Austin, 1737; Thomas Lamboll, 1736; Benjamin De La Conseillere, 1737; James Mazyck, 1739; William Bull, Jr., 1739; Robert Young, 1739; Othneil Beale, 1740; John Lining, 1744; John Drayton, 1753; William Simpson, 1760; Robert Pringle, 1760; William Burrows, 1764; Rawlins Lowndes, 1766; Benjamin Smith, 1766; Geo. Gabriel Powell, 1769; John Murray, 1770; Edward Savage, 1771; John Fewtrell, 1771; Charles Matthew Cosslett, 1772; William Henry Drayton, 1774; William Gregory, 1774; Thomas Bee, John Matthews, Henry Pendleton, 1776; Edanus Burke, 1778.

Since the evacuation of Charlestown, in 1782, the following gentlemen have been appointed judges of the Court of Common Pleas and of Sessions, in the following order: 1. John Faucheraud Grimkè; 2. Thomas Heyward; 3. Thomas Waties; 4. William Drayton; 5. Elihu Hall Bay; 6. Ephraim Ramsay; 7. William Johnson; 8. Lewis Trezevant; 9. Joseph Brevard; 10. Samuel Wylds; 11. William Smith. The first, third and three last, are the judges in 1808. Since the year 1784, when appropriate judges were first appointed by the Legislature to preside over the Court of Chancery, the following gentlemen have been appointed to that high office:—John Rutledge, Richard Hutson and John Matthews, in 1784. These have been succeeded by Hugh Rutledge, James Green Hunt, Edanus Burke, William James, Waddy Thomson, Theodore Gaillard, and William Henry DeSaussure. The last four, with Hugh Rutledge, are at present, 1808, judges of the Court of Equity. Each of them can hold a court, but an appeal may be made from its decisions to the bench of judges.

On a retrospect, the gradual improvement of the judiciary system must be obviously striking. For ninety-nine years there were no courts, judges or lawyers beyond the limits of Charlestown. For two-thirds of that period the Courts of Common Pleas and of King's Bench were held by one and the same single judge, from whom there was no appeal but to

himself on a new trial. In the year 1719 the government and people, by their representatives, remonstrated to the lords proprietors against Nicholas Trott, as being not only sole judge of the Courts of Common Pleas, of King's Bench, but also of the Court of Vice-Admiralty, and at the same time as a counsellor, one of the judges of the Court of Chancery; but they could not effect his removal from any one of these incompatible offices. For the first sixteen years of the royal government, the Courts of Common Pleas and of Sessions were both held by one and the same person by the name of Chief Justice, and without any appeal to any other than to himself. All this time, and till the year 1769, no suit could be commenced but in Charlestown, and no officer but the provost marshal could serve a process in any part of the province; by which means the expenses of a suit were often half the amount of the debt. Some relief was obtained by the Circuit Court Act, but that was only partial. These Circuit Courts were not courts of original jurisdiction, nor of record, for the first twenty years after they were constituted. Since the revolution, the former districts have been successively subdivided till the same portion of country, with the addition of Pendleton and Greenville, has been formed into twenty-five districts, and the number of judges increased from one to six. Every cause may now be re-examined by a bench of judges, of whom, at least, three out of four take it up as new, and without any prepossession. The same successive reforms have attached to the Court of Chancery: for the first 114 years of provincial Carolina, justice was dispensed in that court by the counsellors of the executive authority, who were generally destitute of competent legal knowledge. From 1784 to 1808 three appropriate judges presided over this court; but from their decisions there was no appeal but to a full bench, of which they, from whose decision the appeal was made, constituted a majority. At present an appeal can be made to a bench of five, or at least of four judges, all of whom, except one, takes the case up as new, and without any bias from having presided over the court from whose decision the appeal was made. Before the revolution, and for five years after, there was but one ordinary for South Carolina; but since the peace of 1783, the twenty-five districts have been accommodated with one for each. The good of the people was the object of these modifications of the several departments of government. The end has been obtained with respect to a great majority of the inhabitants, who are orderly and well disposed; but nevertheless, the increased facility and decreased expense of going to law has fostered a spirit of litigation. The number of suits in the State courts exceeds the number instituted in provincial Carolina in a much greater proportion than can be supposed to arise solely

from an increase of population.* Such is the imperfection of all things human, that every earthly good has an alloy of evil mixed with it. The disposition to bear and forbear, and to accommodate disputes, has been lessened by the multiplication of courts and diminution of the expenses, and other inconveniences of seeking legal redress for small matters.†

The mode of admission to practice law in the courts of Carolina, has varied with times and circumstances. Before the revolution it depended on a rule of court, and was rarely conferred on any others than regularly bred European or native Carolinian lawyers. Since the year 1785 the door of admission has been widened, particularly in favor of citizens of the United States. The last law on the subject was passed in 1806. By the rules therein laid down, an examination of the candidate on legal subjects, and also a year's residence, not only in the State, but of actual study in the office of some practicing attorney or judge, is in every case indispensably necessary. This is required of American citizens, though they have studied and been admitted to practice in other States; but from graduates commencing their legal studies, three years, and from others four years study of law is required before they can be admitted. In the year 1808 there were forty-eight practitioners of law in Charlestown. The whole number admitted to the bar, for the twenty-seven years which immediately preceded the revolution, was fifty-eight; but in the twenty-five years subsequent to its termination, in 1783, no less than 238 were admitted in Charlestown, exclusive of those who passed their examination in the country. Of these several never practiced nor intended to practice.

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* For the seven years before the courts were disturbed by the revolution, the greatest number of judgments entered up in Charlestown in one year was 390, and the average of these seven years was 236 judgments for each. In seven years since the revolution, or from 1800 to 1806 inclusive, 5,858 judgments have been entered up, which is an average of 838 for each year. There were 1,850 causes at issue for the January term, 1809—and 1,150 causes were tried in the May term of 1806. This disparity of nearly one for four, previous to and since the revolution, will be more obvious when it is known that all the judgments, obtained in the country districts before the year 1789, were entered up in Charlestown; and that, in the latter period, the judgments entered up in Charlestown are only those obtained in Charlestown district, which is no more than one of the twenty-five into which the State is divided: and it will be still more striking when it is known that the whole population of the State in 1765 was 130,000, rather more than double of the whole population of Charlestown district, which, in 1800, was only 57,486. For much of these details the author and his readers are indebted to James Nicholson.

† The Methodists, in South Carolina, manage these matters in a way peculiar to themselves. In some cases they prohibit, and in all, discourage their people from going to law. They reprobate their contracting debts without a fair prospect of paying them according to contract. In the case of failure to pay, if the debt was contracted wantonly and with improper views, the debtor is left to himself or dismissed from their society. If its non-payment is the effect of unexpected misfortunes they lend him money to discharge it. Though this can only be done to a limited extent, yet their funds are so prudently managed as to save most of their followers from the expenses of law-suits, which are often ruinous to the poor of other societies.

FISCAL HISTORY OF SOUTH CAROLINA,

FROM 1670 TO 1808.

CHAPTER IV.

From the settlement of Carolina, taxes were uniformly the free gifts of the people. For the first twelve years none were imposed. The earliest on record is in the year 1682. This appears in the form of an act of the Legislature, "for raising a tax of £400 for defraying the public charges of the province." But the mode of raising that sum has not descended to posterity. The largest sum imposed in any one year of the first thirty-two, was £800; and the whole which appears to have been raised by taxes during that time did not exceed £2,320: but in that period a new principle of revenue was introduced. In 1691 a duty was imposed on skins and furs. These were then the principal exports from the country. The amount of this duty is unknown, but it must have been considerable, perhaps adequate to the public exigencies; for no tax act appears on record for the ten years next after that duty was imposed.

With the new century there were new calls for money and new modes of raising it. Taxes on the former plan were also continued and enlarged. In 1702 an act was passed "for raising £2,000," to provide for an offensive expedition against St. Augustine. Though the expedition failed, this sum was not sufficient. To supply its deficiencies, acts were passed in each of the two following years for raising £2,000; and about the same time a tax of ten per cent. was laid on furs, skins, liquors, and other goods and merchandize imported into and exported out of the province.

In 1708 an act was passed for raising the sum of £5,000, and in 1710 for raising £3,000, and in 1713 for raising £4,000. In 1714 a specific duty was laid on all negro slaves imported, but the amount charged on each is not mentioned. An act for raising £30,000 from the estates real and personal of the inhabitants, was passed in 1715, and in the year 1716, there was an act for raising 35,000 in that year, and 30,000 for each of the two ensuing years. Of these taxes, £1,600 were apportioned among the merchants and other inhabitants living within the limits of the plat of Charlestown. This is the first instances of a tax laid expressly on merchants and the inhabitants of Charlestown. In the year 1719 an act was passed for raising the sum of £70,000 on lands and negroes. The

augmentation of taxes from £2,320 for the eighteen last years of the seventeenth century to £215,000 in the first eighteen years of the eighteenth century needs explanation. It was not the consequence of increasing wealth or accidental sudden prosperity, but proceeded from causes directly the reverse. The commencement of the eighteenth century was uncommonly disastrous to Carolina. The abortive expedition against Augustine—the invasion of the province by Feboure—the expedition under Col. Barnwell against the Tuscaroa Indians of North Carolina—the Yamassee war and the suppression of the pirates, all took place between 1701 and 1719, and drew after them debt, taxes, paper-money and depreciation. Such are the consequences of war, whether offensive or defensive, successful or abortive, injurious to all establishments, but doubly so to such as are in their infancy. The first link in this chain of evils, was Gov. Moore's expedition against St. Augustine in 1702. To lessen the burdens resulting from it, £8,000 in bills of credit were issued by the Assembly which were to be sunk in three years by a duty laid on liquors, skins and furs. The credit of this paper-money was for some considerable time undiminished; and it would have continued so to the end if it had stood alone, for it was well received by all and ample funds were provided for its redemption. But a new plausible project, contrary to the expectation of its friends, diminished the value of the bills. Interest was then ten per cent., and lands were increasing in value from the successful culture of rice. These circumstances suggested the idea of a land bank as an easy and practicable mode of obtaining, money and of supporting the credit of paper. In the year 1712, the enormous sum of £52,000 was issued in bills of credit to be loaned out on interest to such of the inhabitants as could give the requisite security and agreed to pay interest annually in addition to the twelfth part of the principal. These land bank-bills came into circulation under circumstances similar to those which introduced the late paper medium sanctioned by the Legislature in 1785; but their fate was different. On their emission, the rate of exchange and the price of produce quickly increased. In the first year it advanced to 150, and in the second to 200 per cent. In ten years after, 1722, it was fixed by law at four for one. In addition to the injury done by the land bank-bills, a further depreciation resulted from a further emission of £15,000 by the Legislature in 1716, to assist in defraying the expenses of the Yamassee war. The people lost confidence in bills of credit, the multiplication and extension of which was so easy and tempting.

In Carolina, as a British province, sterling was the legal

money of the country; but unfortunately there was very little of it in the province or in any of the British colonies. The greatest part of their current gold and silver was foreign coin. The local assemblies settled the value thereof by laws peculiar to each province. To remedy the inconveniences arising from the different rates of foreign coin in the several colonies, an act of Parliament was passed and a proclamation founded thereon by Queen Anne in 1708, for ascertaining the current rate of foreign coin in all the colonies. This fixed their current nominal value in British America at one-fourth above the nominal value in sterling money. But the demand for more circulating medium in a new country than could be furnished in coin was so urgent, that this regulation was not regarded, and the confusion arising from the different values of British sterling and provincial current paper money became general throughout the colonies. In some a dollar passed for six shillings, in others for seven and sixpence: in North Carolina and New York, for eight shillings: in South Carolina for one pound twelve shillings and sixpence. In the latter, the comparative value of sterling coin and paper-money diverged so far from each other, that after passing through all intermediate grades of depreciation, it was finally fixed at seven pounds of the paper bills for one pound sterling. It afterwards assumed the character of currency as distinct from sterling, and formed as it were another denomination and species of money. Persons who had entered into contracts before the paper bills had attained that fixed point suffered great injury; but in contracts made afterwards the parties made their engagements in conformity to the existing state of things. In the meantime, the confusion which results from the fluctuating value of money pervaded every department of business. The merchants in Carolina complained of the justice of making these bills of credit a legal tender in the discharge of sterling debts, and interested the merchants of London in their behalf. By the persuasion of the latter the proprietors were induced to direct Governor Robert Johnson to insist on their redemption. Laws were passed for that purpose, but were not carried into full effect. The change of government soon followed.

With the new royal government, the same fiscal measures were substantially pursued; several specified articles were subjected to impost duties; taxes were raised almost every year, and varied from about 20,000 or 30,000 pounds which were among the lowest, to 50,000 or 60,000, which were among the highest prior to the year 1755. Paper bills of credit were also continued. Nicholson, the first royal Governor, willing to soothe the people, gave his assent in the year 1722 to an emission of £40,000 in bills of this description. It

had the intended effect of making the inhabitants more pleased with their change of government, but paved the way for an enormous increase of paper money. The readiness of Nicholson to concur in an emission of bills of credit, increased the eagerness of the people for more, and made them restive under the opposition of his successors to their projects for increasing its amount. Disputes between the different branches of the Legislature for and against bills of credit, were carried to such an height, that there was not one legislative act passed between the years 1727 and 1731. When the King's Council refused to pass laws favorable to paper money, the Provincial House of Commons for some time declined their concurrence in passing any whatever. Each branch endeavored to throw on the other the odium of involving the country in the evils which resulted from a suspension of legislative acts. The House of Commons finally carried their point; for an act to emit £210,000 in bills of credit to be loaned out at eight per cent. was passed in 1736.* A second sum of £210,000 was

* These large emissions of paper money were not made without opposition, as will appear from the following protest of Arthur Middleton, James Kinlock, and Joseph Wragg:

"South Carolina.

"The joint and several protests of Arthur Middleton, James Kinlock, and Joseph Wragg, Esqrs., three of the members of his Majesty's Council, against the bill for stamping, emitting and making current the sum of two hundred and ten thousand pounds in paper bills of credit, &c.

"1st. The said Arthur Middleton, James Kinlock, and Joseph Wragg, do hereby jointly and severally protest against passing the said bill; for that there is no present necessity for enlarging the said paper credit, because it is notoriously evident that the course of exchange between sterling money and the present paper credit, within this two years last past, hath advanced in proportion from seven to ten shillings Carolina moneys on every twenty shillings sterling, to the great prejudice not only of all persons concerned in trade in this province, but to all the merchants in Great Britain trading here, who have very large debts outstanding in this province.

"2dly. For that it appears by the bill itself that the bills of credit now proposed to be issued by this bill bear no manner of proportion to sterling or proclamation money; for that by the said bill it is declared that the said sum of two hundred and ten thousand pounds of the said bills is but equal to about thirty thousand pounds sterling.

"3dly. For that no means is provided by the said bill for ascertaining the value of the bills thereby intended to be emitted, nor any provision made how the proprietors of such bills shall receive any recompense or satisfaction for the same.

"4thly. For that notwithstanding there is no value annexed to the said bills, nor any method prescribed for ascertaining the value of the same whilst in the hands of the possessors, and consequently the value of such bills must be always fluctuating and uncertain, yet they are made a tender, and forced in payment, on the King's subjects, of all debts, past, present, and to come, contrary to all reason and justice.

5thly. For that as it has been found by constant experience that the continued increase of this sort of paper currency has from time to time depreciated the value of the paper credit, wrought up the course of exchange to what it now is, seven hundred and forty pounds, and upwards, of the now current bills for one hundred pounds sterling; so by enlarging the present currency the same will diminish its value, increase the price of the commodities of the country, raise the course of exchange, and be highly detrimental to such of the trading interest both here and in Great Britain, who have now debts outstanding in this colony to a very great value.

"Lastly, For that the said bills are made to be a perpetual bank, and are to be

issued by the same authority and on the same terms in 1746.

In consequence of the too free emissions of paper money in the first half of the eighteenth century, it had no steady value; and under color of law much confusion was introduced, and much injustice was done. The currency of the province was sometimes as low as ten for one, sterling, though its average was only seven for one. Another denomination of money was also introduced and referred to in laws. This was called proclamation money, and was at the rate of one for five, which was an aggregate of the depreciation by the proclamation of Queen Anne in 1708, and of the provincial legal depreciation of 1722. The former of which was one in four; the latter four for one.

In the ten years which followed the commencement of the war between France and England, or from 1755 to 1765, South Carolina paid in taxes £2,020,652. Of this, the enormous sum of £535,303 was raised in the year 1760, when the Cherokee Indians were at war with the Carolinians. The whole amount paid in taxes for the twenty years' peace that intervened between the French war and that which is called the American, or Revolutionary war, was £375,578, which is one quarter less than the taxes for the year 1760. The interval between the first and last tax laid on South Carolina as a colony was eighty-seven years; both were times of peace and required no extraordinary supplies; yet after making every allowance for the difference between sterling and currency, the last provincial tax was more than twenty-four times the amount of the first. This fact is a strong proof of the progressive improvement of the country.

The last emission of provincial paper money was in 1770, when the sum of £70,000 was issued for defraying the expenses incurred for building the several court houses and gaols required by the Circuit Court act passed in the preceding year. The whole amount emitted in bills of credit by

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perpetually current; which is expressly contrary to the intent of the twenty-first article of his Majesty's royal instructions, which recites the great inconveniences that have heretofore happened in South Carolina from the issuing of large sums of paper money, without sufficient funds for the gradual repaying and cancelling the same: for all which reasons we do protest against the passing of the said bill, and pray that this our protest may be forthwith entered and recorded in the journals of the council in assembly.

"May 29th, 1736."

It is remarkable, that though the American revolution took place only forty years after these events, that they were so little known as to be never referred to in the debates relative to paper money. In the interval, a new race had sprung up who had no personal knowledge of them. Tradition was obscure, history was silent. Newspapers gave no information. Old official records were seldom examined or referred to. From these causes the Carolinians of 1776 had little advantage from the knowledge of what their forefathers had done in 1736 or in 1719. It is hoped that in consequence of the present increased means of diffusing and perpetuating knowledge, the like will not occur again.

provincial Carolina in the sixty-eight years which intervened between the first and last emission of paper was £605,000, of which more than two-thirds were secured by mortgaged property; and except 60,000, all of it had been issued after a great depreciation had taken place. As the early emissions were generally called in before later ones were thrown into circulation, the whole sum current at any one time must have been far short of the whole amount emitted. The ingenuity of the early legislators of America was frequently employed in discussing the advantages and disadvantages of paper bills of credit. In two points they all agreed—that under proper restrictions they might be useful to a certain extent; but that all proper restrictions were seldom imposed and seldomer observed. The present Constitution of the United States has rendered the discussion uninteresting in a practical point of view. Bank bills immediately exchangeable for gold or silver, have been found a safer expedient for increasing the circulating medium.

For five years before the revolution, the people of Carolina were singularly circumstanced. From the course of trade there was very little of either gold or silver in the province. No tax bill had been passed, no emission of paper had taken place since 1746, except that of 1770, which amounted to no more than £10,000 sterling. From necessity barter was often substituted for money. To remedy in part this inconvenient mode of doing business, two expedients were adopted. The clerk of the Commons House of Assembly in 1774, gave certificates to the public creditors that their demands were liquidated and should be provided for in the next tax bill. So great was the want of money—so high was the credit of the State, that these certificates passed currently for their full value. Henry Middleton, Benjamin Huger, Roger Smith, Miles Brewton, and Thomas Lynch, men of large estates, issued in April 1775, their joint and several notes in convenient sums payable to bearer. These were readily exchanged for good bonds drawing interest, and went into circulation as money, and passed freely from hand to hand. The abilities of the obligors were well known, and it was generally believed that they would or could, or in every event might be made to pay. The people were pleased to get anything that answered the end of money, and the issuers of the notes anticipated a clear gain of the interest of their whole capital £128,000. While these speculations and anticipations were indulged, the revolutionary war came on. The courts of law were shut. A flood of paper money was issued — depreciation followed. The bonds given in exchange for the notes were paid off with the new depreciated bills of credit, while the holders of the

notes, preferring them to every other species of paper money, hoarded them up under the impression that in every event payment in good money might be procured from some of the payers whose names were subscribed to the same. Thus in the end a project which was really a public convenience and promised to be a private benefit, turned out both unprofitable and vexatious.

At the commencement of the revolution, South Carolina though abounding in natural riches, was deficient in the money of the world. For several years before the termination of the royal government, from three to 5,000 negroes had been annually imported into the province. This increased the capital of the country, but turned the balance of trade against it and caused the greatest part of its gold and silver to centre in Great Britain. In this scarcity of a circulating medium, payments were often made by a transfer of bonds. The necessities of war required something current in the form of money. Paper bills of credit had aided the exertions of Carolina in every period of her colonial history when fighting for Great Britain; the same expedient was resorted to in this juncture to assist in fighting against her. The first emission took place in June, 1775, and the last in February, 1779. In this period, not quite four years, the sum of £7,817,553 was thrown into circulation under the authority of the new order of things. These sums are in the old provincial currency at the rate of seven for one, sterling. When the last emission became current, it was not worth more than one-tenth of its nominal amount. The real value of all the emissions at the times they were respectively issued was £481,065, or nearly half a million of pounds sterling. Though Carolina engaged in the revolutionary war with an empty treasury, yet she drew from her credit, resources to the amount of about half a million of dollars for each of the first four years of the contest. The animation, unanimity, and enthusiam of the people—the immense value of the staple commodities of the province—the strict observance of good faith in performing all its engagements had established a credit superior to the mines of Potosi, and gave currency to everything stamped with public authority. To a people thus circumstanced, whose credit was unstained and who though deficient in gold and silver, abounded in real wealth, the paper currency was very acceptable and greatly facilitated the transfer of property. It set in immediate motion the late stagnant streams of commerce—invigorated industry—and gave a spring to every branch of business. It had an operation on society similar to what might be expected from a government becoming suddenly possessed of a large quantity of hidden treasure, and throwing it into circulation for the public benefit.

The paper currency retained its value undiminished in South Carolina for one year and nine months, viz: from June, 1775 to April, 1777. To this period commenced a depreciation destructive to credit; ruinous to the monied interest; and greatly detrimental to the success of military operations. The progress of it was scarcely perceivable in the first four or five months of 1777, and was comparatively slow throughout that year. From the commencement of the year 1778, when great quantities of the continental money began to flow into the State, it became much more rapid. The enormous expenses of the armies kept up by Congress in the extensive campaigns of 1775, 1776, 1777, in the northern States, required immense supplies of money. This could not be raised in sufficient quantities either by taxes or loans. The only practicable resource left, was emissions of paper currency under an engagement to be redeemed at a future day. These Congress bills of credit were current in Carolina as well as its own bills, and contributed much to the depreciation of the State emissions.

The possessors of the paper money who, either from accident or sagacity, conjectured right about the event, finding that it daily lost part of its value, were perpetually in quest of bargains. As they foresaw that Congress would make further emissions for the supplies of their armies, they concluded that it would be better to purchase any kind of property than to lay up their money. The progressive superabundance of cash produced a daily rise in the price of commodities. The deceitful sound of large nominal sums tempted many possessors of real property to sell. The purchasers, if indulged with the usual credit, or if they took the advantage which the delays of the courts of justice allowed, could pay for the whole by the sale of an inconsiderable part. The sanguine, flattering themselves with the delusive hopes of a speedy termination of the war, were often induced to sell lest a sudden peace should appreciate the money, in which case it was supposed they would lose the present opportunity of selling to great advantage. From the same principles some hoarded up the bills of credit in preference to purchasing solid property at a supposed extravagant price. They mistook the diminished value of the money for an increasing price of commodities, and therefore concluded that by buying little, selling much, and retaining their paper currency, they were laying the foundations of future permanent wealth. Subsequent events, in opposition to the commonly received maxims of prudence and economy, fully demonstrated that they who instantly expended their money received its full value, while they who laid it up, sustained a daily diminution of their capital.

That the money should finally sink, or that it should be redeemed by a scale of depreciation, were events neither foreseen nor expected by the bulk of the people. The Congress and the local Legislatures, for the first five years of the war, did not entertain the most distant idea of such a breach of public faith. The generality of the friends of the revolution, reposing unlimited confidence in the integrity of their rulers, the plighted faith of government, and the success of the cause of America, amused themselves with the idea that in a few years their paper dollars, under the influence of peace and independence, would be sunk by equal taxes or realized into silver at their nominal value; and that, therefore, the sellers would ultimately increase their estates in the same proportion that the currency had depreciated. The plunderings and devastation of the enemy made several think that their property would be much safer, when turned into money, than when subject to the casualties of war. The disposition to sell was in a great degree proportioned to the confidence in the justice and final success of the revolution, superadded to expectations of a speedy termination of the war. The most sanguine Whigs were, therefore, oftenest duped by the fallacious sound of high prices. These principles operated so extensively that the property of the inhabitants, in a considerable degree, changed its owners. Many opulent persons, of ancient families, were ruined by selling paternal estates for a depreciating paper currency, which, in a few weeks, would not replace half of the real property in exchange for which it was obtained. Many bold adventurers made fortunes in a short time by running in debt beyond their abilities. Prudence ceased to be a virtue, and rashness usurped its place. The warm friends of America, who never despaired of their country, and who cheerfully risked their fortunes in its support, lost their property; while the timid, who looked forward to the re-establishment of British government, not only saved their former possessions, but often increased them. In the American revolution, for the first time, the friends of the successful party were the losers.

The enthusiasm of the Americans, and their confidence in the money, gave the Congress the same advantage in carrying on the war which old countries derive from the anticipation of their permanent funds. It would have been impossible to have kept together an American army for so many years without this paper expedient. Though the bills of credit operated as a partial tax on the monied interest, and ruined many individuals, yet it was productive of great national benefits by enabling the popular leaders to carry on a necessary defensive war.

Many attempts were made to preserve the credit of the currency. State and continental loan offices were opened, that the necessity of further emissions might be diminished, and the hearty friends of American independence deposited in them large sums on interest. The Legislature, in the year 1779, offered an interest on money lent to the State of three per cent. more than was paid by private persons. Notwithstanding all these douceurs, the supplies obtained by loans fell so far short of the public demands that further emissions could not be restrained. When the small quantities of specie that still remained began to be changed for paper bills at an advance, an Act of Assembly was passed prohibiting any person from receiving or demanding for any article a larger sum in paper than in specie. A law to prevent the ebbing and flowing of the sea would have been no less ineffectual than this attempt of the Legislature to alter the nature of things. Gold and silver no longer passed at par, and contracts were either discharged in paper or not discharged at all. The bills of credit being a legal tender in all cases would pay off old debts equally with gold and silver, though for new purchases they were of much less value. The merchants and other monied men, who had outstanding debts, contracted before or near the first period of the war, were great losers by the legal tender of the paper currency. For eighteen months they were not allowed to sue for their debts, and were afterwards obliged to accept of depreciated paper in discharge of them at par with gold and silver. This was not the result of intentional injustice, but forced on the Legislature by the necessity of the times. Besides, it was at that time the fixed resolution of Congress and the different Legislatures to redeem all their paper bills at par with gold or silver.

The public was in the condition of a town on fire, when some houses must be blown up to save the remainder. The liberties of America could not be defended without armies—armies could not be supported without money—money could not be raised in sufficient quantities otherwise than by emissions. It was supposed essentially necessary to their credit that they should have the sanction of a legal tender in the payment of all debts. This involved the ruin of the monied interest, and put it in the power of individuals to pay their debts with much less than they really owed. This unhappy necessity to do private injustice for a public benefit, proved in many respects injurious to the political interests of the State and the moral character of its inhabitants. It disposed those who were losers by the legal tender, and who preferred their money to the liberties of America, to wish for the re-establishment of British government, and filled others with murmur-

ings and bitter complaints against the ruling powers. The public spirited who were sincere in their declarations of devoting life and fortune to support the cause of their country, patiently submitted to the hardships from a conviction that the cause of liberty required the sacrifice. The nature of obligations was so far changed that he was reckoned the honest man who from principle delayed to pay his debts. Instead of creditors pressing their debtors to a settlement, they frequently kept aloof or secreted their obligations.

Much of the evil occasioned by the legal tender of paper bills might have been prevented if the laws respecting it had confined its operations to future contracts. A great deal might have been done at an early period by taxation to support the credit of the money. But the depreciation not being generally foreseen, no provision was made against the injustice resulting from it. The evils which had taken place from minor floods of paper money forty or fifty years before, were generally unknown to a new generation. In the first stage of the dispute, few Americans had any acquaintance with the philosophy of money or the subject of finance; and almost all were sanguine in expecting the establishment of their liberties without such long and expensive sacrifices. Had even all these matters been properly attended to they would only have moderated, but could not have prevented depreciation. The United States had no permanent funds to give stability to their paper currency. In the commencement of the war they were without fiscal systems or regular governments to enforce the collection of taxes. They were in possession of no resources adequate to the raising of sufficient supplies without large emissions of paper money.

The surrender of Charlestown on the 12th of May, 1780, wholly arrested the circulation of the paper currency, and put a great part of the State in possession of the British when many contracts for these nominal sums were unperformed, and after many individuals had received payment of old debts in depreciated paper. James Simpson, Intendant General of the British police, commissioned thirteen gentlemen to inquire into the different stages of depreciation, so as to ascertain a fixed rule for payment in hard money of outstanding contracts; and to compel those who had settled with their creditors to make up by a second payment the difference between the real and nominal value of the currency. The commissioners proceeded on principles of equity, and compared the prices of country produce when the paper currency was in circulation, with its prices in the year before the war; and also the rate of exchange between hard money and the paper bills of credit. The Legislature of the State took up the same

business in the year 1783, and, proceeding on the same principles as the British commissioners, agreed upon and established by law the following table of depreciation, which shows how much of the depreciated bills was necessary to make the value of £100 in good money in each month, between April 1777, when depreciation began, and May 1780, when by the fall of Charlestown the bills of credit ceased to circulate:

MONTHS.	1777	1778	1779	1780
	£ s.	£ s.	£ s.	£ s.
January.....	.....	221 10	761 0	3775 0
February....	.....	211 10	832 0	4217 0
March.....	.....	267 10	893 10	4659 0
April.....	108 10	317 0	966 10	5101 0
May.....	117 0	328 10	950 0	5248 10
June.....	125 10	347 10	1177 0	.....
July.....	139 0	354 10	1457 0	.....
August.....	152 10	361 10	1537 10	.....
September...	166 0	380 10	1618 0	.....
October.....	186 0	405 0	2040 10	.....
November...	206 0	520 10	2596 10	.....
December...	226 10	629 0	3233 0	.....

The British successes to the southward in 1780 caused the continental money to flow back to the middle States. Its superabundance and incurable depreciation at last forced on the Congress and the several Legislatures, a scale of depreciation, though the face of the bills, the terms of their emission, and every public act respecting them, gave assurances that they should be ultimately redeemed at the rate of one silver dollar for every paper dollar. In September, 1779, the Supreme Council of the States, in their circular letter, rejected with horror the bare supposition that such a measure should ever be adopted; yet in six months afterwards it was done with the acquiescence of a great majority of the people. In other countries similar measures have produced popular insurrections, but in the United States it was peaceably adopted. Public faith was violated, but in the general opinion public good was promoted. The evils consequent on depreciation had taken place and the redemption of the bills at par, instead of remedying the distresses of the sufferers, would in many cases have increased them by subjecting their small remains of property to exorbitant taxation. The money had in a great measure got out of the hands of the original proprietors, and was in the possession of others who had obtained it at a cheap rate.

The paper currency continued to have a partial circulation in the northern States for a year after a scale of depreciation was fixed. It gradually diminished in value till the summer of 1781. By common consent, it then ceased to have any currency. Like an aged man, expiring by the decays of nature without a sigh or a groan, it gently fell asleep in the hands of its last possessors, and continued so for ten years; when the Congress paper dollars were funded at the rate of 100 for one of silver. The extinction of the paper currency was an event ardently wished for by the enemies, and dreaded by the friends of American independence. The failure of its circulation disappointed them both. The war was carried on with the same vigor afterwards as before, and the people very generally acquiesced in the measure as justified by necessity.

The introduction of silver and gold by channels which were opened about the same time that the paper currency ceased to circulate, contributed much to diminish the bad effects of its annihilation. A trade was at that period opened with the French and Spanish West India islands, by which specie was imported into the American continent, and a vent was found for the commodities of the northern and middle States. The French army which arrived in Rhode Island, as has been before mentioned, early in the year 1780, put into circulation a great quantity of coined silver, and subsidies to a large amount were about the same time granted to the United States by his most christian majesty.

The unexpected introduction of so much gold and silver suggested to the Congress a new system of finance. The issuing of paper currency by the authority of government was discontinued, and the public engagements were made in specie.

The supplies for public exigencies in South Carolina before the reduction of Charlestown, were principally raised by taxes on lands and negroes. Three contributions of this kind had been levied between the Declaration of Independence in 1776, and the surrender of the capital in 1780. The first was in the year 1777, and was fixed at nearly one-third of a dollar per head on negroes, and as much on every hundred acres of land. A fear of alarming the people, and too sanguine hopes of a speedy peace, induced the Legislature to begin moderately; more with a view of making an experiment than of raising adequate supplies. The next tax was in 1778, nominally ten times larger than the former, but really at the time of paying worth only about twice as much. In 1779, a tax of twenty paper dollars per head on negroes, and one very hundred acres of lands, was levied. This about the time of payment was nearly equal to a specie dollar.

While the British were in possession of Charlestown, money

was plentiful where their power extended. Where it did not, the reverse was the case. Coin had no existence in any quantity among the friends of independence. Paper money had no general circulation, and its value was next to nothing. A few had hoarded up a little specie for this day of extremity. Plate, rings, keep-sakes, old coin, and such like articles were brought into use by those who possessed them; but the great bulk of the people lived without money or any substitute for it. Buying and selling in a great measure ceased. Those who had the necessaries of life freely divided with those who were destitute. Luxuries or even comforts were not contemplated. To make out to live was the ultimate aim of most. This was done to the astonishment of many who could scarcely tell how it had been effected. While the British were in possession of Charlestown, their sterling was the money of account. After their departure as currency and paper bills of every kind had vanished from circulation, the Legislature continued sterling as the money of the country; but added two pence to the dollar, and nine pence to the guinea in the vain hope of retaining them in circulation. This change of the money of account produced mischievous consequences among country people ignorant of public business. Some such made contracts, expecting that a dollar would pay £1 12s. 6d. of debt which was its value in the current money of the country before the fall of Charlestown; but according to the new regulations, it was equal to no more than 4s. 8d. Several even now keep their accounts in pounds, shillings, and pence: but a dollar is the legal money unit of the state, and is by degrees becoming the money of account with all the people.

When the British evacuated Charlestown, and the citizens regained possession, there was a show of money which had been left by the evacuating troops; but this soon disappeared. Though the object of resisting Great Britain was obtained, yet for several years many inconveniences were felt from the want of a circulating medium. A partial relief was obtained from a general evil. The debts growing out of the war were liquidated, and an acknowledgment on the part of the State of the sum due was given to the creditor in form of an indent. Interest on these evidences of debt was paid by another paper called a special indent. These were annually issued for five years, and were made receivable in taxes which were annually imposed for their redemption. The holders of them readily subscribed to the doctrine that a public debt was a public blessing; for to them it really proved so. It furnished annually from two to three hundred thousand dollars in the form of paper, which obtained a considerable circulation, and to a certain extent lessened the evils resulting from the want of

an adequate circulating medium. The value of the expedient depended on the punctual collection of taxes, which often failed. Nevertheless, the special indents kept up their credit at a moderate depreciation. The project of paper money had been frequently contemplated and sometimes brought forward; but the quantities of paper bills of credit, issued in the revolutionary war, and still unprovided for in the hands of almost every person, induced a general opinion that no new bills of credit could be emitted with any probable ground of hope that they would pass current so as to answer the end of money. After some years the experiment was made on a small scale. Bills of credit to the amount of £100,000 were issued by the Legislature under the name of paper medium, on a plan similar to that which had been adopted seventy-six years before: these were loaned on interest to the inhabitants in small sums on a mortgage of land or a deposit of plate. There was a general understanding among the members of the Legislature, that no further sum should be emitted on any emergency. The merchants, who were always losers by depreciation, came forward in a body, and agreed to take these paper bills at par with gold or silver. This association and a general conviction that the measure adopted was necessary, introduced this new paper into common use. It maintained its credit better than was expected. The depreciation was inconsiderable and so far short of what the inhabitants had often seen to be attached to other paper, that little or no impression was made to its disadvantage. To the borrowers it proved a great accommodation, and to the public a source of revenue; for besides the loss of bills, the annual interest, 30,000 dollars, was clear gain to the State. So much of the principal has been paid, that the outsanding balance at present only draws about 9,000 dollars annual interest. This is reduced by occasional payment of the principal; but the State finds so great a convenience in receiving interest on what costs nothing, that all who punctually pay it receive indulgence for the principal. The State has cleared 300,000 dollars by this project, and is likely to receive a considerable further sum. The same paper was a source of great emolument to the South Carolina bank. At a time when gold and silver were fast leaving the country, to arrest its departure, the directors of that institution discounted on the State paper medium. To the depositors of it they issued in exchange a new paper of their own, in which they promised on demand to pay its nominal amount in the medium of the State or the specie of the bank. On this deposit of State paper medium they discounted in their own paper to a considerable extent, and gained the whole discount and at the same time retained their specie

without the hazard of any great run being made upon it. In this mode they advanced their own capital to the amount of about 60,000 dollars, while they accommodated their customers and prevented the exportation of gold and silver.

In five or six years after the issuing of the paper medium the debts of the United States, and of South Carolina, were funded and ample provision was made for paying the interest and in due time the principal. This added an important item of daily increasing value to the circulating medium of Carolina. The energy of the new national government, with its offspring, the funding system, made important changes in the fiscal concerns of the State. Among many other benefits resulting from the former, was a settlement of accounts between the United and individual States. The pecuniary concerns of the revolution were adjusted on the principles of a mercantile partnership. All expenses incurred by individual States on behalf of the United States, were a fair charge against the latter. South Carolina, far removed from the seat of government, carried on the war in a great measure from her own resources but charged her advances in the common cause to the United States according to fixed rules. It was generally supposed that Carolina was a creditor State, but the extent and amount was unknown to all its citizens. To adjust accounts between the United States and the individual States, three commissioners were appointed in behalf of the United States; and each State appointed one to take care of its particular interest. Simeon Theus was appointed on behalf of South Carolina. There never was a more judicious or happy appointment. To facilitate his arduous labor the State permitted him to employ as many clerks as he chose, but he employed none. By working night and day, regardless of office hours, in about two years he brought forward an immense mass of accounts, co-extensive with the revolutionary war, and embracing all the advances of South Carolina, and supported so many of them to the satisfaction of the commissioners of the United States, that they certified a balance of 1,447,173 dollars due to the State over and above the four millions of dollars of its debt previously assumed by the United States. Certificates of funded stock were given to the State for that sum, and they have been regularly paid. This immense credit placed the finances of South Carolina on high ground. A funded public debt became a species of money and silenced the clamor for an increase of the circulating medium. The clauses in the Constitution which prohibited the State "from issuing bills of credit; from passing ex-post facto laws, or laws impairing the obligation of contracts," restored confidence between individuals and produced an astonishing melioration of public and private concerns.

One of the beneficial consequences resulting from this new and happy state of things was the establishment of the banks. The utility of these institutions was known before, and an effort to establish one in Charlestown with the small capital of 100,000 dollars was made, in 1783, but failed from the want of subscribers. Men willing and able to advance that small sum could not then be found. Soon after the adoption of the funding system, three banks were established in Charlestown whose capitals in the whole amounted to twenty times the sum proposed in 1783. The first of these was a branch of the National bank with the name of the office of discount and deposit, which was established in 1792. Though one bank could not be raised in 1783, yet before ten years elapsed one would not satisfy the people. A second one by the name of the South Carolina bank was in the year 1792 projected, agreed upon, and filled in a short time. The advantages of these institutions were found to be so great that in nine years a third by the name of the State bank was projected and readily filled. Three hundred thousand dollars were subscribed by the State as a part of the capital of this third bank, and paid in six per cent. stock. The State gained by the transfer all that the dividend of bank stock exceeded the interest of funded stock. This excess was never less than two, and has been as high as four per cent. per annum. All the shares in these several banks were taken up and instantly sold for an advanced price. In every instance there were more subscribers than shares. The receipts for the first payment towards the National bank sold in Charlestown for five, six, and in a few instances for ten times the amount of the first cost. The term depreciation which was common in the revolutionary war, and for eight years after, became obsolete, and appreciation took its place. The unemployed money of individuals being deposited in the banks, added so much to their capitals as enabled the directors to discount extensively. In consequence thereof landed property rose in value—agriculture was promoted—commerce extended—embarrassed men assisted, and the people in general accommodated. The country rapidly rose from a state of depression and embarrassment to a high pitch of prosperity.

The establishment of banks has completely done away all inconveniences from the want of a circulating medium, an evil that has afflicted Carolina in every preceding period of her history except when it was remedied by bills of credit: a remedy for the most part worse than the disease. Since their institution, in ordinary times, every man whose capital and habits of punctuality entitle him to credit can obtain it. Thus a revolution has taken place in the fiscal concerns of South Carolina as well as in its government. Bank bills exchange-

able at sight for gold and silver are the true bills of credit, and have sufficiently increased the current money of the country without the hazard of depreciation or injustice which have for the most part followed all other bills. There still are ebbs and flows of money when it comes in like a tide, and what remains in private hands is very apt to go out like the ebb; but in these emergencies the banks being the principal holders of the gold and silver in the State, by curtailing their discounts can arrest the departure of specie and confine it in their vaults. So sudden have been the transitions from plenty to a scarcity of gold and silver, and the reverse in the former periods of Carolina history, that no man was safe in buying or selling on long credit; for he could not be sure that money would have the same value at the time of payment as in the moment of contracting. In the present state of things, gold and silver have a domicile in Charlestown. Though the quantity is not always the same, yet the variation is so much under control that great injustice or even inconvenience cannot readily occur from that source. This happy fiscal state never took place while Carolina was a British province, nor even for the first fifteen years of its sovereignty.

Since the termination of the revolutionary war, annual taxes to answer the current expenses of the State for the year have been imposed on the inhabitants. The first was in 1783, a dollar a head on negroes and in proportion on every hundred acres of land. From the first settlement of the province till that period, the lands had been uniformly taxed according to quantity without any regard to quality. A hundred acres of pine barren and a hundred acres of the most highly cultivated tide swamp, paid the same tax. The owners of the former were clamorous for an alteration so as to make quality as well as quantity a ground of taxation. The owners of the latter were very slowly convinced of the practicability of the discrimination, though they acknowledged its justice. The experiment was first made and carried into effect in the year 1785. All the granted lands were then classed according to their situation and quality, none higher than twenty-six dollars per acre and none less than twenty cents. A per centage was imposed on each class rated according to this valuation. The taxes from 1784 to 1788 were payable in special indents, but ever since in specie or something equivalent.

Till the year 1790, the State had the income of the impost duty, and from that fund paid its civil list; but the United States have since enjoyed that fruitful source of revenue. The State now depends for the support of its government on taxes imposed on lands, negroes, monies at interest, stock in trade, factorage, employments, faculties and professions, and a few

incidental sources of revenue; such as duties upon sales at public auction, on licenses granted to hawkers, pedlars, and theatrical performers, the interest of the paper medium loan, the interest and instalments of the debts due to the State from the United States, the dividends from its shares in the State bank, fines and forfeitures, &c.

The average of taxes annually collected, is about 135,000 dollars; and the State receives from other sources about 175,000 dollars. The appropriations of revenue are first for paying the salaries of the civil list, and other incidental expenses of government, both of which amount in common years to a sum between seventy and 80,000 dollars; and secondly, for paying extraordinaries and contingent accounts. These vary so considerably that they cannot be stated with precision. On an average they amount to about the sum of 145,000 dollars per annum.

For the last fifteen years government has been daily acquiring consistency, and becoming more adequate to the ends for which it was instituted. The fiscal department was the last which received a portion of this healthy vigor. Stricter laws were enacted and severer penalties imposed on revenue officers for mismanagement or neglect of duty. Committees of the House of Representatives were appointed to superintend the collection of taxes. Boards of commissioners were instituted and authorized to call all persons to account who had had any agency in the fiscal concerns of the State. Nevertheless, many frauds were committed without detection and much was lost from neglect and mismanagement. No man in or out of office could tell with any precision the amount of the debts and credits of the State. The concentration of all matters relative to revenue in a head of the department had been several times proposed but not adopted. Some could not see the utility of such an officer; others thought his salary might be saved. At length the defects of the financial system became so glaring as to induce the passing of an act in the year 1799 to establish the office of a Comptroller of the revenue whose duty it was, among other official details, to superintend, adjust, and settle all the former accounts of the treasurers and tax collectors of the State—to superintend the collection of the future revenue—to direct and superintend prosecutions for all delinquencies of revenue officers—to enforce executions issued for arrearages of taxes, and suits for debts due to the State—to decide on the official form of all papers to be issued for collecting the public revenue—and on the manner and form of keeping public accounts—to examine and count over the cash in the treasury—to prepare and report at every session of the Legislature estimates of the public revenue and public expend-

iture — and at the same time to render fair and accurate copies of all the treasurer's monthly reports, and a true and accurate account of the actual state of each department of the treasury—to suspend from office every tax collector who did not perform the duties of his office faithfully—to examine and compare the returns of taxable property from the different districts—to inquire into any defects or omissions—and to proceed against all persons accessary to the making false or defective returns. It was also made the duty of the treasurers, on receiving any public money, to give duplicate receipts; one of which was to be lodged with the Comptroller. And no public money was to be paid otherwise than in conformity to legal appropriations; and no sum for more than a hundred dollars was to be drawn out of the treasury but by the warrant of the Comptroller, expressing on what account such money was due by the State. Thus everything relating to revenue was subjected to the direction and control of a single person; and all power relative to the same concentered in his hands. The Legislature chose Paul Hamilton their first Comptroller who, besides an accurate knowledge of accounts, possessed a clear and systemising head and a quick discernment to detect errors and frauds. After a thorough examination of the resources, debts, and credits of the State, he made his first report in 1800; and a further one annually for the four following years. These reports astonished the Legislature. They then for the first time knew their real fiscal state, and were agreeably surprised to find it much better than they expected. From Comptroller Hamilton's last report in 1804 it appeared that the balance due to the State amounted to the unexpected sum of 754,755 dollars.

This flourishing condition of the public finances led to two important State measures. The richness of the treasury encouraged the Legislature to subscribe 300,000 dollars in stock to the State bank, and to establish and endow the South Carolina college at the new central seat of government. The clear gains of the former, which accrued to the State from the excess of bank dividends over interest on six per cent. stock, were sufficient to defray the expenses of the latter. The State may be said to have acquired for its citizens the advantages of both institutions for nothing, as they were carried into effect without imposing upon them any additional burdens. After five years faithful service, in which Paul Hamilton introduced the same order into the finances of the State which had been done for his illustrious namesake for the United States, he was honored by his grateful country with the highest State office in its gift. Thomas Lee was appointed his successor, who, with equal firmness and ability, prosecutes the same good work. From their exertions a chaos of public account has

been reduced to order, energy and decision infused into every department of finance; and the fiscal concerns of the State, recovered from disorder, are now in a flourishing and healthy condition.

One reform facilitated another. The State constitution of 1790 adopted no rule for apportioning the representation of the people in the Legislature. Afraid of interrupting public harmony, the convention, by common consent, made an arbitrary apportionment without regard to property, numbers, or any avowed principle whatever. A general conviction prevailed, that as government was instituted for the preservation of property as well as liberty, both should be respected. The principle was just, but the carrying it into effect impracticable anterior to the establishment of the office of a Comptroller General. As many wealthy citizens owned property in various and distant parts of the State, and had the privilege of making their returns of taxable property and paying their taxes where they lived, the exact comparative taxable property of any one district could not be ascertained till the returns from all parts of the State were brought under the view of one person; who, by dissecting and distributing them, could determine the precise amount and value of taxable property in each electoral district. This was done by Comptroller Lee. The Legislature adopted a principle, introduced and ably supported by Abraham Blanding, that one-half of the present representatives should be assigned to numbers and the other half to property. The population being ascertained by a census taken for the purpose, and the value of the taxable property of each electoral district being stated by the Comptroller, the apportionment of the representation, conformably to the principle just adopted, becomes a plain arithmetical caculation. Thus, a real difficulty, which threatened the peace of the State, was compromised to general satisfaction, and the reform in the fiscal department essentially contributed to a reform of the constitution and the stability of the government.

Since the first settlement of Carolina there has been a progressive rise in the price of property. Well chosen spots of land, which sixty years ago cost little more than the fees of office, will now command from ten to fifteen dollars per acre. Squares might have been purchased in Charlestown many years after it began to be built, for less money than single lots sell for at present. The appreciation of landed property is, on a general average, three for one, and in many cases ten or twenty for one.* The rents of houses, the price of slaves, the

* A tract of high land, the property of Dr. Harris, three miles distant from Charlestown, containing 140 acres, with 150 or 200 acres of salt marsh annexed thereto, sold, in the year 1713, for 305 pounds; in 1726, for 1,750 pounds; in 1728, for 2,000 pounds; in 1768, for 2,792 pounds. Land, opposite to this tract, lately

wages of laborers, the expenses of living and of educating children, have all advanced three if not four for one.*

A few observations on the rate of interest and usury, as connected with the fiscal history of Carolina, shall close this chapter. For the first fifty years after the settlement there is no evidence of any law fixing the rate of interest, nor of any against usury. Two laws were passed, one in 1720 and the other in 1721, against usury; the last of which indirectly brings into view the rate of interest. This prohibits the taking more interest for money lent than ten per cent. per annum under the penalty of a forfeiture of treble the amount. When Carolina was settled, interest in England was six per cent. When this law passed it was five. How it came to be ten per cent. in Carolina, without an express law, does not appear. Perhaps common consent and usage had fixed that rate; for no evidence exists that there ever was any written law authorizing it. As a reason for proscribing usury, it is stated in the law of 1721 that "divers persons have of late taken advantage of the great necessities of the people, and exacted twenty-five pounds interest for the loan of one hundred pounds for one year; and very often more." Twenty-seven years after, 1748, a law passed for reducing interest from ten to eight per cent.; and twenty-nine years after, 1777, it was reduced from eight to seven per cent. These reductions were both preceded by plentiful emissions of paper money. With the last laws for reducing interest, severe penalties against usury were incorporated. Since the institution of banks there has been no new law against usury, though the practice and legal prosecutions for it have been more common than they ever were before. The intention of the laws against usury is humane, being designed to save men from the effects of their own folly and indiscretion; but the policy of such laws is questionable. The rate of interest, when left to itself, will, like all other things, find its own level. When it is hedged round with penal laws the lender will not part with his money till he is secured, not only against the insolvency of the borrower, but

sold for 100 pounds sterling per acre. In the year 1756 the South Corolina society declined to purchase fourteen acres of highland with thirty acres of adjoining marsh, all in Ansonborough. The highland was inclosed with a brick wall, and had on it a good dwelling-house and all necessary out-houses. The whole was then offered to the society for 600 pounds currency, or less than $3,700; though it would now readily sell for $100,000.

* In the year 1740, when the detail of an expedition against St. Augustine was before the Assembly, a joint committee of both Houses rated corn at one-fourth of a dollar per bushel, and rice at five shillings sterling per hundred. In Well's South Carolina Gazette, of September 17th, 1760, the price current of the following articles, reduced to dollars and cents, is as follows. Rice, per hundred, $1 53; Carolina flour, per hundred, $2 80; by the pound, tallow, 10 cents; by the barrel, pork, $7; by the bushel, salt, 25 cents; by the pipe, Madeira wine, $118; do. best, $155; Vidonia, do., $96.

the possibility of his being subjected to the consequences of violating the laws. This raises the premium, and increases the distresses of the distressed. The practice will exist with or without laws; for none have been found able to restrain it. It is far from being improbable that the repeal of all laws on the subject would be more for the interest of both borrowers and lenders than the present system of enormous penalties inflicted on those who ask and take more than seven per cent. for the use of their money.

AGRICULTURAL HISTORY OF SOUTH CAROLINA.

FROM 1670 TO 1805.

CHAPTER V.

To facilitate the improvement of new countries the settlers should have a general knowledge of the climate, soil, and productions of such as are similar and have been previously cultivated. Information on these subjects, especially when corrected by philosophy and experience, leads to useful practical results. In these particulars the proprietors as well as the first settlers were deficient. The countries subject to Great Britain both in Europe and the American continent, were much colder than South Carolina; and her possessions in the West Indies much more steadily warm. The productions of neither were suited to this climate, which was a medium between the two. From inattention to these circumstances the first attempts at agriculture in the province were injudicious. They were directed to the cultivation of those highland grains with which the settlers were best acquainted, but these were unsuitable to the low sandy soil common on the sea-coast. An anxiety to raise provisions may have directed their industry into this channel, but the maize and potatoes, both natives of the country, would have answered better. The swamps and low grounds were of forbidding aspect, thickly wooded and hard to clear; and when cleared were not adapted to any productions with which the inhabitants for the first twenty-four years of the settlement were acquainted. During this period their efforts to cultivate the commodities which in England pass under the general name of corn, turned to little account. The woods presented a much more profitable object for their industry. In addition to bears, beavers, wild cats,

deer, foxes, raccoons and other numerous animals whose skins or furs were valuable, they abounded with oak and pine trees; the former yielded staves which were then in demand in the adjacent West India Islands. The juice of the latter extracted from the growing tree by incision and solar heat forms turpentine. This distilled yields the spirits of turpentine and the residue is rosin. The same tree when dead and dry, by the application of fire yields tar, and that when boiled becomes pitch. The trunk is easily converted into masts, boards or joists. Little labor was requisite in a country abounding with fuel and pines for obtaining these and other valuable commodities from this most useful of all trees. While the early settlers of Carolina were engaged in procuring naval stores, furs and peltry for market, and cultivating European grains on a sandy soil for provisions, providence directed them to a new source of great wealth. Landgrave Thomas Smith who was Governor of the province in 1693, had been at Madagascar before he settled in Carolina.* There he observed that rice was planted and grew in low and moist ground. Having such ground at the western extremity of his garden attached to his dwelling house in East Bay street, he was persuaded that rice would grow therein if seed could be obtained. About this

* The exact time of the arrival of Thomas Smith in Carolina is not known, but it must have been soon after it began to be settled, for as early as 1688 he obtained in his own name a grant of about six acres of land on White Point. He or his father came from Exeter, in England, and was one of the many dissenters who migrated to America as an asylum from the persecution which was raised in the seventeenth century against nonconformists to the church of England. A tradition has been regularly handed down among the descendants of Thomas Smith, that he obtained the passing of a law, the principle of which continues to this day, for drawing juries indiscriminately from a box so as to preclude the possibility of packing a jury to carry any particular purpose. This tradition accords with authentic dates and facts: for on the the 15th of October, 1692, the first law on that subject was passed and was entitled "an act to provide indifferent jurymen in all cases, civil and criminal." This law, in common with the others passed on that day, was authenticated with the name of Thomas Smith in conjunction with Governor Philip Ludwel, Paul Grimball, and Richard Conant. That Thomas Smith was then a person of so much influence as to have a principal agency in passing a favorite good law is highly probable, for in seven months after he was constituted a landgrave and also appointed Governor of the province. He was the founder of a numerous and respectable family in Carolina, of which many of the fifth and sixth, and some of the fourth and seventh generation are now living. They have generally retained the principles of their common ancestor so far as to be zealous friends of religion. Among them have been found some of the most distinguished pillars both of the Episcopal and Independent churches. The immediate descendants of Thomas Smith were two sons: of these, one was the father of twenty children, and the other of four. Of these twenty-four grandchildren, seventeen were married; and their descendants have multiplied and branched out into many families. The number of the descendants of Thomas Smith who are now alive cannot be exactly ascertained, but there is reason to believe that it exceeds 500. For it is known that there are now living forty-five descendants of the Rev. Josiah Smith, who was only one of his seventeen married grand-children, and that there are more than twenty living descendants of Josiah Smith, cashier of the branch bank, who is only one of the very many of his great grand children. There is an evident fitness that the founder of so numerous a progeny, should be the introducer of rice, which of all known grains is best calculated for the support of an extensive population.

time a vessel from Madagascar being in distress, came to anchor near Sullivan's Island. The master of this vessel inquired for Mr. Smith as an old acquaintance. An interview took place. In the course of conversation Mr. Smith expressed a wish to obtain some seed rice to plant in his garden by way of experiment. The cook being called said he had a small bag of rice suitable for that purpose. This was presented to Mr. Smith who sowed it in a low spot of his garden, which now forms a part of Longitude Lane. It grew luxuriantly. The little crop was distributed by Mr. Smith among his planting friends. From this small beginning the first staple commodity of Carolina took its rise. It soon after became the chief support of the colony. Rice, besides furnishing provisions for man and beast, employs a number of hands in trade; and is therefore a source of naval strength. In every point of view it is of more value than mines of silver and gold. Rice is said by Dr. Arbuthnot to support two-thirds of the human race. No doubt can exist of its contributing extensively as nutriment to the great family of mankind.

Besides its consumption in Europe, Africa, and America, many millions of the inhabitants of Asia, live almost exclusively upon it. In plantations where it is cultivated, every domestic animal is usually fat and hearty. Among all the variety of grains none is more productive, nutritious, or wholesome than rice. In its simple state it is both a healthy and cheap food for the poor, and with proper preparation and additions it is one of the greatest delicacies at the tables of the rich; every particle of it is trebled in bulk and doubled in weight, and in its capacity for aliment, from the quantity of water it imbibes in boiling: for water is now known to be the principal ingredient in nutrition. He that eats rice at the same time receives mucilage and water, solid and fluid aliment of the most nourishing kind. Its emollient and glutinous qualities make it eminently useful in bowel complaints, and as such it forms an important article in the stores of armies and other large bodies of men. One pound of it has been found on experiment to go as far in domestic cookery, as eight pounds of flour. It is more durable than any other known grain. Its substance is so hard as not to be penetrable by the insects which deposit their ova in other farinaceous substances. It has been eaten in a sound and wholesome state four, five and six years after it was cleaned; and there is no doubt of its keeping good even more than twice as long when it is covered with its natural husk. To those who from age or infirmity are deprived of their teeth, rice is a most convenient aliment, for it requires little or no mastication. When introduced into the stomach after being well boiled, it is more easily digested than

almost any other solid food not thoroughly masticated. To that class of people whose deranged stomach cannot digest bread, unless well raised and thoroughly baked, rice affords a safe and agreeable substitute, for it requires no fermentation, and when sufficiently boiled is as likely to agree with the stomach as crusts of bread or the best baked biscuits. To exhausted armies, starving navies, or even to the weary traveler, though far removed from the haunts of men, if fuel, water and an earthen or metallic pot can be procured, rice quickly affords a palatable and strengthening aliment. In voyages round the world, flour of every kind and everything made from flour is apt to spoil, but rice sustains no injury from change of climate or the longest period of any voyage hitherto known. Such is the grain which was introduced into Carolina about 115 years ago, and has ever since been in high demand. With several in Charlestown and the adjacent country, it is the principal vegetable aliment they use for the greatest part of their lives. They experience nothing of that blindness which ignorance attributes to its constant use. The variation in the amount of the crops of this useful commodity is an important document in the history of Carolina; for it has been materially affected not only by the introduction of other staples, but by the political revolutions of the country. When it was introduced there were few negros in the province, the government was unsettled, and the soil and other circumstances most favorable to its growth were unknown. For the first twenty years after it began to be planted, the ravages of pirates on the coast made its exportation so hazardous as to discourage the cultivation of it. In the year 1724, about six years after the pirates were entirely suppressed, 18,000 barrels of rice were exported. Our knowledge of what was previously made or exported is conjectural; but each succeeding crop brought an additional quantity to market. In the year 1740, the amount exported was 91,110 barrels; in 1754 it had reached to 104,682 barrels. Till the middle of the eighteenth century the chief article of export was rice; but about that time much of the attention and force of the planters was transferred from it to indigo. Nevertheless the culture of this grain continued to advance, though slowly, till the commencement of the American revolution; when the average quantity annually exported was about 142,000 barrels. In the course of the revolutionary war, the small crops of rice were consumed in the country; and so many of the negroes were either destroyed or carried off that the crop of 1783, the first after the evacuation of Charlestown, amounted only to 61,974 barrels. With the return of peace the cultivation of rice was resumed, and continued to increase till the year 1792;

when the crop exported amounted to 106,419 barrels. About this time cotton began to employ so much of the agricultural force of the State, that the crops of rice since that period have rarely exceeded what they were about the middle of the eighteenth century.

The culture of rice in Carolina has been in a state of constant progressive improvement. Though it can be made to grow on highland, yet the profits of it when planted there are inconsiderable. The transfer of it to the swamps was highly advantageous. It gave use and value to lands which before were of no account, and by many deemed nuisances; and it more than trebled the amount of crops. Had the first mode of planting been continued, the highland would soon have failed; but much of the rice swamp in Carolina is inexhaustible.

Another great improvement is the water culture of this valuable grain. The same preparation which fits the soil for the growth of rice equally favors the growth of grass and weeds. The old method of destroying these intruders with the hoe was so laborious as to curtail the crops; but when reflection and experience had pointed out that overflowing the rice fields at a proper season, would kill the grass and weeds while it nourished rice, a plant delighting in water, the practicability of planting more ground became obvious.* For the first seventy or eighty years after rice became a staple commodity, the attention of the Legislature and of individuals was steadily fixed on the contrivance of some labor-saving machinery for separating the grains from its closely adhering husk. After many attempts machines, worked by the tides, were contrived and erected by Mr. Lucas, which are equal to the beating out twenty barrels a day by the force of tide water with the help of a few hands. Before they were introduced, the labor of the negroes in doing the same business by hand was immense. It sometimes crippled the strength of the men, and often destroyed the fertility of the women. Being done at unseasonable hours, it was a frequent source of disease and death. All this mischief in a great measure has been done away for the last twenty years, in which period rice mills have

* South Carolina is indebted to Gideon Dupont, of St. James Goose Creek, for the water culture of rice: he was an experienced planter of discernment and sound judgment, who after repeated trials ascertained its practicability. In the year 1783 he petitioned the Legislature of the State on the subject. A committee of five was appointed to confer with him. To them he freely communicated his method, relying on the generosity of the public. The treasury being then empty, the committee could only recommend granting him a patent. This he declined. His method is now in general use on river swamp lands, and has been the means of enriching thousands, though to this day his own family have reaped no benefit whatever from the communication of his discovery. Thomas Bee, now federal Judge for the district of South Carolina, was one of the above committee; and on his authority these particulars are stated.

become common in all parts of the State where rice is extensively cultivated. Some of these machines have been lately improved by Mr. Lucas, his son, and Mr. Cleland Kinlock of Georgetown, to such an extent, that from the beating out of the grain to the packing it in barrels for market, the whole and every part is performed by the same impelling power. When the late improved method of thrashing out the grain from the straw, invented by Mr. DeNeale is also taken into view, it may be asserted that the saving of labor in the culture and manufacture of rice has been carried to an astonishing height. The Carolina rice machines are far superior to any in China, though machinery has been long employed for the same purpose by the ingenious people of that ancient country. From these improvements the same force of hands that formerly would have raised two barrels can now with equal facility raise three. The rice of Carolina is equal in quality and better manufactured than that of any other nation. The only thing now wanting is to raise it, as in some foreign countries, with little or no other manual labor than that of sowing and reaping. This is only to be effected by keeping it constantly in water to the height of four, five, or six inches. When it terminates through water of that depth it will be generally free from those weeds and grasses, which if not kept down by constant labor, stunt its growth. The Agricultural Society of South Carolina have therefore resolved to give a gold medal to the maker of the best experiment on the culture of rice sown on land which shall, immediately after sowing, be covered with water from four to six inches deep, and kept inundated to that or a greater depth during the whole progress of its growth; except when it may be necessary to reduce or take off the water for the purpose of changing it, or of weeding the rice. As an auxiliary to this project, the same society have resolved to give a gold medal for the best hydraulic machine, to be worked either by wind, steam, or animal power, which shall be erected and used during the season, and which shall raise to a height not less than twelve feet the greatest quantity of water in a given time. They also have resolved to give a silver medal for the next best machine used for the same purpose to raise water to a height not less than four feet. This mode of cultivating rice is practiced in the Delta of Egypt, where the land is irrigated with water raised by the labor of oxen applied to simple machinery. If these projects succeed, and become general, the laborers may be withdrawn from the rice fields for five of the best months in the year and applied to other objects; for water will perform all the necessary intermediate operations between sowing and reaping. The culture of that grain may then be said to approach near to perfection.

The second great staple of Carolina was indigo. Its original native country is Hindostan; but it had been naturalized in the West India islands, from which it was introduced into Carolina by Miss Eliza Lucas, the mother of Major General Charles Cotesworth Pinckney. Her father, George Lucas, Governor of Antigua, observing her fondness for the vegetable world, frequently sent to her tropical seeds and fruits to be planted for her amusement on his plantation at Wappoo. Among others he sent her some indigo seed as a subject of experiment. She planted it in March 1741 or 1742. It was destroyed by frost. She repeated the experiment in April; this was cut down by a worm. Notwithstanding these discouragements she persevered, and her third attempt was successful. Governor Lucas, on hearing that the plant had seeded and ripened, sent from Montserrat a man by the name of Cromwell, who had been accustomed to the making of indigo, and engaged him at high wages to come to Carolina and let his daughter see the whole process for extracting the dye from the weed. This professed indigo maker built vats on Wappoo creek, and there made the first indigo that was formed in Carolina. It was but indifferent. Cromwell repented of his engagement as being likely to injure his own country; made a mystery of the business, and, with the hope of deceiving, injured the process by throwing in too much lime. Miss Lucas watched him carefully, and also engaged Mr. Deveaux to superintend his operations. Notwithstanding the duplicity of Cromwell, a knowledge of the process was obtained. Soon after Miss Lucas had completely succeeded in this useful project, she married Charles Pinckney; and her father made a present of all the indigo on his plantation, the fruit of her industry, to her husband. The whole was saved for seed. Part was planted by the proprietor next year at Ashepoo, and the remainder given away to his friends in small quantities for the same purpose. They all succeeded. From that time the culture of indigo was common, and in a year or two it became an article of export. Soon after the dye was successfully extracted from the cultivated plant, Mr. Cattel made a present to Mr. Pinckney of some wild indigo which he had just discovered in the woods of Carolina. Experiments were instituted to ascertain its virtues. It proved to be capable of yielding good indigo but was less productive than what had been imported. The attention of the planters was fixed on the latter. They urged its culture with so much industry and success, that in the year 1747 a considerable quantity of it was sent to England; which induced the merchants trading to Carolina to petition Parliament for a bounty on Carolina indigo. The Parliament, upon examination, found that it was one of the most beneficial articles of French commerce:

that their West India islands supplied all the markets of Europe, and that Britain alone consumed annually six hundred thousand weight of French indigo, which at five shillings a pound cost the nation the prodigious sum of one hundred and fifty thousand pounds sterling. It was demonstrated that this expense might be saved by encouraging the cultivation of indigo in Carolina. It was proved that the demand for indigo annually increased, and it could never be expected that the planters in the West Indies would attend to it while the culture of sugar canes proved more profitable. Accordingly, an Act of Parliament passed in the year 1748, for allowing a bounty of sixpence per pound on indigo raised in the British American plantations, and imported directly into Britain from the place of its growth. In consequence of this Act, the planters applied themselves with double vigor and spirit to that article, and seemed to vie with each other who should bring the best kind and greatest quantity of it to the market. Some years indeed elapsed before they found out the nice art of making it as good as the French; but every year they improved in the mode of preparing it, and finally received great profit as the reward of their labors. While many of them doubled their capital every three or four years by planting indigo, they in process of time brought it to such a degree of perfection as not only to supply the mother country, but also to undersell the French at several European markets. It proved more really beneficial to Carolina than the mines of Mexico or Peru are or ever have been either to old or new Spain. In the year 1754, the export of indigo from the province amounted to 216,924 lbs. And shortly before the American Revolution, it had arisen to 1,107,660 lbs. In the Revolutionary war it was less attended to than rice. In the year 1783, it again began to be more cultivated: 2,051 casks of indigo was exported, and it continued to form a valuable export for some years, but large importations of it from the East Indies into England so lowered the price as to make it less profitable. Near the close of the eighteenth century, it gave place to the cultivation of cotton. The same grounds being generally suitable for both, were for the most part planted with the new staple; and indigo has been ever since comparatively neglected. Its culture was at all times in a great measure confined to the low and middle country.

Cotton has been known to the world as an useful commodity ever since the days of Herodotus, who upwards of two thousand years ago wrote that "Gossypium grew in India which instead of seed produced wool." As rice feeds more of the human race than any other grain, so cotton clothes more of mankind than either wool, flax, hemp, or silk. Both

of these articles have grown for many centuries in the East Indies in a country similar to Carolina. Though the same reasoning and analogy, and the same information that led to the introduction of rice might have pointed out the propriety of attempting the culture of cotton in Carolina, yet the latter was not planted to any considerable extent for one hundred years after the introduction of the former. It had been declared by Dr. Hewat in his valuable historical account of South Carolina, printed in 1719, "that the climate and soil of the province were favorable to the culture of cotton." The first Provincial Congress in South Carolina, held in January, 1775, recommended to the inhabitants "to raise cotton," yet very little practical attention was paid to their recommendation. A small quantity only was raised for domestic manufactures. This neglect cannot solely be referred to the confusion of the times, for agriculture had been successfully prosecuted for ten years after the termination of the Revolutionary war before the Carolinians began to cultivate it to any considerable extent.* In this culture the Georgians took the lead. They began to raise it as an article of export soon after the peace of 1783. Their success recommended it to their neighbors. The whole quantity exported from Carolina in any one year prior to 1795 was inconsiderable, but in that year it amounted to £1,109,653. The cultivation of it has been ever since increasing, and on the first year of the present century eight million of pounds were exported from South Carolina. The uncertainty of this crop has disgusted a few planters, and brought them back to the less hazardous culture of rice. These two staples have so monopolized the agricultural force of the State, that for several years past other articles of export and even provisions have been greatly neglected. In the great eagerness to get money, the planters have brought themselves into a state of dependence on their neighbors for many of the necessaries of life which formerly were raised at home. So much cotton is now made in Carolina and Georgia, that if the whole was manufactured in the United States, it would go far in clothing a great proportion of the inhabitants of the Union; for one laborer can raise as much of this commodity in one season as will afford the raw material for fifteen hundred yards of common cloth, or a sufficiency for covering one hundred and fifty persons. That part of it which is now manufactured in Europe, and brought back in an improved state, sometimes pays more, and on a general average nearly

* The labor-saving machines invented in England within the last thirty-five years, greatly promoted the manufacture of cotton, and thereby opened a steady and advantageous market for the raw materials. This was one of the principal causes which encouraged its cultivation in the United States.

as much in duties to the United States, as the planter gets for the raw material. The duty, being in proportion to the value, on a pound weight of fine cotton goods is much more than the cultivator of the commodity gets for the same weight of cotton in its merchantable state. This staple is of immense value to the public, and still more so to individuals. It has trebled the price of land suitable to its growth, and when the crop succeeds and the market is favorable, the annual income of those who plant it is double to what it was before the introduction of cotton.

The cotton chiefly cultivated on the sea-coast is denominated the black seed or long staple cotton, which is of the best quality and admirably adapted to the finest manufactures. The wool is easily separated from the seed by roller-gins which do not injure the staple. A pair of rollers worked by one laborer give about twenty-five pounds of clean cotton daily. The cotton universally cultivated in the middle and upper country is called the green seed kind. It is less silky and more wooly, and adheres so tenaciously to the seed that it requires the action of a saw-gin to separate the wool from the seed. This cuts the staple exceedingly; but as the staple of this kind of cotton is not fit for the finer fabrics it is not considered injurious. The quality of these two kinds is very different. The wool of the green seed is considerably the cheapest; but that species is much more productive than the other. An acre of good cotton land will usually produce one hundred and fifty pounds of clean wool of the long staple kind. An acre of land of equal quality will usually produce two hundred pounds of the green seed or short staple kind. Besides these, yellow or nankeen cotton is also cultivated in the upper country for domestic use. Two ingenius artists, Miller and Whiteney of Connecticut, invented a saw-gin for the separation of the wool from the seed which has facilitated that operation in the highest degree. The Legislature of South Carolina purchased their patent-right for 50,000 dollars, and then munificently threw open its use and benefits to all its citizens.

Such have been the profits of the planters of cotton, and so great has been their partiality for raising it, to the exclusion of other valuable commodities, that the history of the agriculture of Carolina, in its present state, comprehends little more than has been already given: but it is proper to bring into view what this has been and what it might and would be now if rice and cotton, especially the latter, did not absorb almost the whole energies of the planting interest.

Wheat, next to rice, is of most extensive use as an aliment. The culture of it was introduced and encouraged by Joseph

Kershaw, who, more than forty years ago, erected mills at Pinetree, now Camden, for manufacturing it into flour. These both encouraged and rewarded the cultivators of wheat. It became a favorite commodity for some time in the vicinity, and continued so for several years. The flour made there did not command as high a price in Charlestown as what was imported from the northern States. The Carolina wheat was not inferior, though perhaps these first mills might in some respect be so; but the difference in the quality of the flour has become so inconsiderable that when shipped to the West Indies in barrels, marked as if from Philadelphia and Baltimore, it sold as well as that which had been really shipped from these ports. The fraud, if detected, was considered more as an offence against truth than commerce; for the commodities were substantially equal. The manufacture of flour was suspended by the Revolutionary War. In the course of it Mr. Broome, one of Col. Lee's cavalry, passed over the foundation of Mr. Kershaw's mills. Struck with the advantages of the situation he returned when peace took place and erected there as complete a set of mills as any in the United States. And in the year 1801, 40,000 bushels of it were manufactured at two or three flour mills, all of which were within one mile of Camden, and from the proceeds 600 barrels of superfine flour were delivered for domestic use or exportation. From the demand of wheat and flour money flowed into the contiguous settlements. This good example was followed, and excellent merchant mills were erected in Laurens district, on the waters of Little river, by Thomas Wadsworth; and at Greenville, on the waters of Reedy river, by Alston, and in different parts of the State by others. There was every prospect that flour would soon make an important addition to the exports of Carolina. These prospects have been, for some years, obscured; for, by nice calculations, the planters found that they could make more money by cotton than wheat. Considerable quantities of flour are now imported, and though much is made in the interior country, very little, or none, is exported.*

The next great article derived from the cultivation of the earth is maize, or Indian corn; for its production the swamps,

* Such is the uncertainty of human affairs that the project of building mills for the manufacture of flour, which promised fair to be both a public and private advantage, has proved very injurious to the interests of all concerned. These mills, erected at great expense, are comparatively idle from the want of wheat; for the farmers in the neighboring districts raise little else than cotton. The owners of the Camden mills, in particular, have been materially injured by this general change of the staple commodity of the vicinity. It is worthy of their consideration whether they might not alleviate their losses by substituting homespun manufactures for that of flour. The same machinery, buildings and water power would answer as well for the one as the other.

when perfectly drained, and the highlands are both well adapted. The crop varies with the soil and seasons on highland from ten to twenty-five bushels, and in the swamps from twenty-five to seventy-five bushels. The aliment derived from this grain is considered as more strengthening and better adapted to laborers than either rice or wheat. The negroes of Carolina give it a decided preference, and are said to be better able to perform their labor when fed on corn than on any other grain. From the year 1739 nearly to the end of the eighteenth century it has been an article of export, but on a moderate scale; for rice and indigo were always deemed more profitable. With the new staple, cotton, it cannot bear any competition. In the year 1792, when cotton was beginning to be extensively cultivated, 99,985 bushels of corn were exported; which exceeded any amount that can be recollected, either before or since. As the former advanced the latter declined. Corn, no longer an article of export, is now largely imported for domestic use on the sea-coast.

Though Carolina, by her rice, cotton and lumber, contributed largely to the food, clothing and shelter of man, yet these were not the only rewards conferred on the cultivators of its soil. It produced another commodity which, though not to be numbered among the necessaries, is by its votaries placed high in the list of the comforts of life. Tobacco is an indigenous plant of America. It had been successfully cultivated in Virginia before Carolina was settled. Little doubt could have existed that it might be made to grow in a more southern latitude; but it does not appear among the articles of export from Carolina till 1783, and then only six hundred and forty-three hogsheads are stated as the amount. In the following it had reached to 2,680, and in the year 1799 to 9,646 hogsheads. In the rich lands of the back country it was found to answer well; but the expense of bringing so bulky an article so great a distance to market, left little clear profits. It could not stand in competition with cotton.

The soil of Carolina produces also hemp and flax. They are noted as articles of export in the year 1784, but only in the small quantity of three tons of the former and 171 casks of the latter. Hemp is now cultivated for sale in the upper country, particularly between Broad and Saluda rivers; and the soil is so congenial to it that enough might be raised for every necessary use. The rice planters may console themselves that if the planting of that grain should ever cease to be an object of their attention, the grounds heretofore used for the culture of rice will answer very well for hemp or afford excellent pastures and grazing fields. Flax may be cultivated to any extent, but at present it is only raised for domestic purposes.

Barley has been successfully cultivated, and some exported. The low grounds of Carolina have produced fifty, sixty, and even seventy bushels to the acre. It ripens so early in May as to admit another crop to be made on the same ground in the course of the year. A sufficiency might be furnished to answer all demands if the planters found an interest in raising it.

Madder has been successfully cultivated by Aaron Loocock, but it has been dropped in favor of other pursuits less troublesome or more profitable.

The swamps abound with reeds, of which 147,750 were exported in 1784, and any demand for them might be supplied.

The commodities already enumerated have all been articles of export, and will probably be so again if cotton or rice should fail, but the capacity of the country to yield other valuable productions has been ascertained, though not carried to the extent of exportation. In this class hops and silk may be reckoned. The former is annually raised in small quantities, and may easily be urged so far as to answer any probable demand. The latter was the subject of successful experiments made very early in the eighteenth century, under the patronage of Governor Sir Nathaniel Johnson.* In the year 1755 Mrs. Pinckney, the same lady who about ten years before had introduced the indigo plant, took with her to England a quantity of excellent silk, which she had raised and spun in the vicinity of Charlestown, sufficient to make three complete dresses. One of these was presented to the Princess Dowager of Wales and another to Lord Chesterfield. They were allowed to be equal to any silk ever imported. The third, now in Charlestown, in the possession of her daughter Mrs. Horry, is remarkable for its beauty, firmness and strength.

The culture of silk was attended to for a considerable time by the Swiss colonists near Purysburgh, and occasionally by private persons, particularly by Mr. Van Haslet, as late as the year 1787, in the vicinity of Charlestown. It is at present successfully continued at New Bordeaux in Abbeville, by Mr. Gibert; but the project has not been urged with perseverance nor to any great extent, probably from conviction that there were easier modes of making money. From the well known circumstance that mulberry trees grow spontaneously, and that native silk worms producing well formed cocoons are often found in the woods of Carolina, it is probable that the country is naturally adapted to the raising of silk.

The same observations will apply to wine, olives and oil;

* The plantation, on which Governor Sir Nathaniel Johnson made his silk, is situate in St. Thomas parish, and has ever since been known by the appropriate name of Silk Hope. It is now the proporty of Nathaniel Heyward.

for the woods abound with native grapes, and wine has been made both from them and the fruit of imported vines. The olive tree has also been brought from abroad and naturalized, and their fruit prepared and preserved equal to imported olives. The former of Henry Laurens, the latter in the first instance by his daughter Martha Laurens Ramsay, and afterwards by others.

Though the demand for cotton should cease, or the price fall, there would be no ground for serious regret. Many other profitable objects of culture are within the grasp of the planters. When their industry and ingenuity is turned to these and other projects which might be mentioned, there is good reason to believe that the result will console them for their loss of a valuable staple by finding others which will add more to their comforts and real enjoyments than they ever have derived from the proceeds of their cotton crops.

Planters are the most independent and influential men in Carolina, especially when they are out of debt and have money remaining from their last crop to meet with cash in hand the expenses of the current year. Such of them as commence planting with both land and slaves bought on credit, often fail. Where either is inherited or acquired without debt, the other may be purchased by an industrious prudent man with a fair prospect of advantage. When crops are anticipated by engagements founded on them before they are made, ruin is often the consequence, and much oftener since the revolution than before; for the indulgence formerly granted to subjects in Carolina has seldom been extended to citizen planters. The failure of a single pre-engaged crop may break up a promising agriculturist driven to extremities by a pressing creditor.

Merchants and military men, when they have devoted themselves to agriculture in Carolina, have generally made good planters. Their former habits have a tendency to make them regular and methodical in business—to keep up strict discipline—and to count the cost of every undertaking. Professional men who attempt agriculture, seldom succeed in both as well as when they devote themselves diligently and exclusively to one pursuit. In no business do the random habits of desultory men more certainly lead to ruin than in planting.

The education of the sons of planters in distant countries is often injurious to such of them as are destined to follow the same line of business as their fathers. They frequently return with sentiments and habits very unsuitable to their future prospects. In consequence of their foreign education they may be better scholars but they are generally worse planters.

The opportunities of enjoying and communicating happiness

within the power of humane, good, and liberal planters, are great. If their inclination is for mental improvement they may riot in intellectual luxury. Books, leisure to read, and every facility for philosophical experiments or agricultural projects, are all within their grasp. So great are their advantages that Arthur Youngs might be reared in every district. If their disposition leads them to the practical arts of government, they may be Trajans on a small scale. All that has ever been urged in favor of an energetic efficient government applies to them. They can enforce obedience to any extent they please. If they make a good and judicious use of their power they can compel that observance of regularity and order, decency and propriety of conduct, which brings happiness in its train. There are several such planters in Carolina who do a full-orbed duty to their domestics; and instead of being tyrants over slaves, are wise and good rulers over well-governed happy subjects.

In 1785, a society was incorporated to promote the interests of agriculture. Their object was to institute a farm for agricultural experiments—to import and circulate foreign articles that were suitable to the climate of Carolina, and to direct the attention of the agriculturists of the State to useful objects, and to reward such as improved the art. They imported and distributed some cuttings of vines and olives. The latter answered well, but the vicinity of Charlestown proved too moist for the former. The society gave some considerable pecuniary aid to an adventurer undertaking to cultivate vines at Columbia, but their liberality was misapplied.

Their efforts hitherto have been crippled from the want of funds. This defect has been lately done away from the successful issue of a lottery, instituted for the benefit of the institution. It is now clear of debt and possessed of forty-two acres of land in the vicinity of Charlestown, in which agricultural experiments are occasionally made. The society consists of forty members, whose annual subscription of twenty-five dollars each, added to the proceeds of the late lottery, will enable them to proceed with vigor in their original pursuits.

From their future labors the public look with earnest expectation for illumination on various subjects, the improvement of which was the object of their incorporation.*

The agriculture of Carolina, though flourishing, is far short

* These expectations are in a train of being realized. The society have resolved upon a plan for advancing the agricultural interest of the State. Part of this has been already mentioned as connected with the culture of rice. In addition, they have resolved to offer medals. For an efficacious and practical method of destroying the caterpillars which infest the cotton plant, or preventing their ravages: For the best and most practicable method of discharging stains from cotton and rendering it perfectly white: For the greatest quantity of sweet oil made from

of its height. The art of manuring land is little understood, and less practiced. The bulk of the planters, relying on the fertility of the soil, seldom planting any but what is good, and changing land when it begins to fail for that which is fresh, seldom give themselves much trouble to keep their fields in heart. Beds of compost are rare. Twenty years ago there was no fixed price in Charlestown for manure, and it was often given to the first who offered to carry it off. The late increase of gardens in the vicinity has increased the demand and raised its price to something, but far less than it bears in other large cities. Cattle, sheep, and hogs experience little care and derive but a small portion of their comforts or food from the attention or the labors of their owners. For the most part they are left to provide for themselves from the bounties of nature. It is not uncommon for the planter, though possessing twenty or thirty milch cows, to enjoy fewer comforts from them than cottagers in other countries derive from two or three well looked after. Much good highland remains untouched for future laborers. Extensive marshes are yet in a state of nature, though no doubt exists of the practicability of reducing the most of them to a very useful state. Only a small proportion of the margins of rivers and of other swamps have as yet been brought under cultivation. Immense forests of pine land have hitherto yielded little else than lumber. They might, with a little manure, be made to produce corn, potatoes, turnips, and rye, in addition to kitchen garden vegetables. A numerous peasantry might be supported in them, though at present they are generally unproductive deserts. Pine lands are now the seat of health, and with proper management might be made the bulwark of the State; for they can be cultivated by white men, while the swamps and low grounds can be planted only by those who are black. A numerous population is maintained in Asia, and in the southern parts of Europe, in climates resembling that of Carolina.

Some observations on horticulture as a branch of agriculture will close this chapter.

The planters of Carolina have derived so great profits from the cultivation of rice, indigo, and cotton, that they have always too much neglected the culture of gardens. The high

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olives raised in the State: For the greatest quantity of oil obtained from groundnuts, and from the seed of sesamum or bene, of cotton, and of sun-flowers: Also for the greatest quantities of the levant senna, cassia senna, raised, cured, and brought to market in the State; and the greatest quantity of rhubarb, rheum palmatum, castor oil, hops, and madder, all to be raised in the State: And to the person who shall first, within the State, establish and keep a flock of sheep of the true marino breed: And for the greatest quantity of figs, the produce of the State, dried and brought to market. The society have also resolved to establish a nursery of the most useful and ornamental trees, shrubs, and plants, and to offer them for sale at moderate prices.

price of their staple commodities in every period has tempted them to sacrifice convenience to crops of a marketable quality. There are numbers whose neglected gardens neither afford flowers to regale the senses, nor the vegetables necessary to the comfort of their families, though they annually receive considerable sums in money for their crops sent to market. To this there have been some illustrious exceptions of persons who cultivated gardens on a large scale both for use and pleasure. The first that can be recollected is Mrs. Lamboll, who, before the middle of the eighteenth century, improved the southwest extremity of King street, in a garden which was richly stored with flowers and other curiosities of nature in addition to all the common vegetables for family use. She was followed by Mrs. Logan and Mrs. Hopton, who cultivated extensive gardens in Meeting, George, and King streets, on lands now covered with houses. The former reduced the knowledge she had acquired by long experience, and observation, to a regular system which was published after her death, with the title of the Gardener's Kalendar; and to this day regulates the practice of gardens in and near Charlestown.*

About the year 1755 Henry Laurens purchased a lot of four acres in Ansonborough, which is now called Laurens' square, and enriched it with everything useful and ornamental that Carolina produced or his extensive mercantile connections enabled him to procure from remote parts of the world. Among a variety of other curious productions, he introduced olives, capers, limes, ginger, guinea grass, the alpine strawberry, bearing nine months in the year, red raspberrys, blue grapes; and also directly from the south of France, apples, pears, and plums of fine kinds, and vines which bore abundantly of the choice white eating grape called Chasselates blancs. The whole was superintended with maternal care by Mrs. Elinor Laurens with the assistance of John Watson, a complete English gardener. Watson soon after formed a spacious garden for himself on the ground now occupied by Nathaniel Heyward, and afterwards on a large lot of land stretching from King street to and over Meeting street. In the latter he erected the first nursery garden in Carolina. There every new and curious plant that grew or had been naturalized in the country might be purchased. The botanic publications of the day quote him as the introducer of several

* Mrs. Martha Logan was the daughter of Robert Daniel, one of the last proprietary Governors of South Carolina. In the fifteenth year of her age she married George Logan, the son of Colonel George Logan, who came from Aberdeen, in Scotland, and in the year 1690 settled in South Carolina, and there founded the respectable family of Logans, the sixth generation of which is now living. Mrs. Logan was a great florist, and uncommonly fond of a garden. She was 70 years old when she wrote her Treatise on Gardening, and died in 1779, aged 77 years.

productions of Carolina to the public gardens in England. By an exchange of such articles, he rendered service to both countries and enriched each with many of the curiosities of the other. These promising attempts at gardening were all laid waste in the revolutionary war. Watson's garden was revived and continued by himself and descendants after the peace of 1783, but has since gone to ruin. Robert Squib followed John Watson, and in like manner did honor to Carolina by circulating its curious native productions. Of these he transmitted several to English botanists, which grew and flourished. He is honorably mentioned in Curtis's Botanical Magazine "as not only well versed in plants, but indefatigable in discovering and collecting the more rare species of Carolina, and with which the gardens of England are likely soon to be enriched." He was also the author of a work entitled the Gardener's Kalendar, which was published in Charlestown. About the year 1786 the government of France sent out the celebrated traveler and botanist, Andre Michaux, who established a botanic garden ten miles from Charlestown into which he introduced a number of curious exotics in addition to a great variety of American productions. This also has gone to ruin, though many of the articles growing therein have been transplanted and preserved elsewhere.

There are now some valuable private gardens near Charlestown: one is situated in St. Andrews on the banks of Ashley river, and belongs to Charles Drayton. It is arranged with exquisite taste and contains an extensive collection of trees, shrubs, and flowers which are natives of the country. Among many other valuable exotics, a great number of viburnum tinus, and of gardenias, which are perfectly naturalized to the soil, grow there with enchanting luxuriance; but the principal object of the proprietor has been to make an elegant and concentrated display of the native botanic riches of Carolina, in which he has succeeded to the delight and admiration of all visitants.

Another is in St. Paul's district and was originally formed by William Williamson, but now belongs to John Champneys. It contains twenty-six acres, six of which are in sheets of water and abound in excellent fish; ten acres in pleasure grounds, walks, and banks; the remainder is used for horticultural and agricultural purposes. The pleasure grounds are planted with every species of flowering trees, shrubs, and flowers that this and the neighboring States can furnish; and also with similar curious productions of Europe, Asia, and Africa. Another part contains a great number of fruit trees; especially piccan nut and pear trees, which are ripe in succession from the middle of May to the middle of October.

Though all garden vegetables can be raised earlier in Carolina than in the Northern States; yet till very lately cabbages, potatoes, onions, and such like articles were generally imported for domestic consumption. Some are even now imported. Within the last twenty years a spirit of horticulture has increased in the vicinity of Charlestown so as to supply the market with a considerable variety and plenty of vegetables for domestic use; but many of the inhabitants of the country still remain destitute of the comforts which even a moderate attention to gardens could not fail of procuring. Rich in staple commodities, minor objects are by many comparatively neglected.

A passion for flowers has of late astonishingly increased. Many families in the capital, and several in the country, for some years past have been uncommonly attentive to flower gardens. Those who cannot command convenient spots of ground have their piazzas, balconies, and windows richly adorned with the beauties of nature far beyond anything that was known in the days of their infancy.

COMMERCIAL HISTORY OF SOUTH CAROLINA,

FROM 1670 TO 1808.

CHAPTER VI.

Commerce is of noble origin in South Carolina. Its first merchants were the lords proprietors of the province. Two vessels were very early and constantly employed by them to introduce settlers and everything necessary either for their support or the cultivation of the earth. These plied between Charlestown on one side, and Virginia, the British West India Islands, particularly Barbadoes, and Great Britain on the other. From the West India Islands they imported rum and sugar, and in return carried thither staves and lumber. Sir John Yeamans, who was Governor of the province in the second, third, and fourth year after its settlement, owned an estate in Barbadoes, and was very active in promoting this exchange of commodities between the two countries, with both of which he was particularly connected. From Great Britain the Carolinians imported clothing, provisions, plantation tools, and domestic animals. To it they exported furs and peltry. Much of these were procured from the Indians,

which gave rise to a brisk trade between them and the settlers in the way of barter. This was the general course of commerce for the first thirty years after the settlement. About that time rice began to be an article of export.

Mercantile profit was not the object of the lords proprietors. To encourage emigration to their province they advanced money to supply the settlers. Their increased number bid fair to increase the demand for the lands of the proprietors so as ultimately to reimburse them for their advances. They pursued this policy till they had reason to complain of much going out and little coming in. The colonists, after a reasonable period of indulgence, were left to their own exertions; and the proprietors discontinued their mercantile intercourse with the settlement.

The trade of the province must have been inconsiderable for at least fifteen years, as that period had elapsed before any collector of duties for the port of Charlestown was appointed; and before the first legislative act respecting a pilot was passed. For fifty years, subsequent to the settlement, nothing certain is known either of the population in or the amount of exports from Carolina; but there is reason to believe that rice began to be exported about the beginning of the 18th century. Anderson states that 264,488 barrels were exported to England from 1720 to 1729; and that 429,525 barrels were exported between 1730 to 1739 inclusive. About the latter period the trade of the province was considerable both in imports and exports. The negroes then amounted to about 40,000. They and all other articles of importation must have been paid for chiefly by rice, naval stores, lumber, peltry, and furs exported from the country. To these first articles of export were added indigo, from 1747—tobacco, from 1782—and cotton, from 1792.* The aggregate value of exports was in such a course of progressive increase, that in the last year of the 18th century it amounted to 10,554,842 dollars, and in the first year of the 19th to 14,304,045 dollars.

For the 106 years of the colonial existence of South Carolina, all its trade centered in Great Britain and its dependencies; with the exception of as much rice as under the special indulgence of an act of parliament was exported to the southward of Cape Finisterre. This trade was carried on very much to the satisfaction and interest of Carolina. A considerable proportion of it was in the hands of native merchants, but more was carried on by emigrants from Great Britain and

*These periods mark the years when the exportation of these articles began to be considerable. Small quantities were exported before. In addition to these great articles of export, some minor ones might be added: such as Indian corn, cow-pease, beef, pork, leather, shingles, staves, &c.

Ireland. Many of these invested their commercial gains in a planting interest, settled and raised up families in the province. Several of them passed through all the grades between clerks, or shopmen, and wealthy merchants or substantial planters, in the interval between their youth and the period of their attaining or soon after their passing the meridian of life. They did not consider Carolina as a place of exile from the delights of Europe till they had amassed the means of enjoying life in their native lands, but took it for their home and acted with that liberality towards their adopted countrymen which might be expected from permanent inhabitants. Several of the present generation have derived their origin from merchants of this description.

All the little commerce which was carried on in the revolutionary war was forced against apparently insurmountable obstacles. The State had no adequate means for protecting its trade. Soon after the declaration of independence, some adventurous individuals began to send vessels to the Dutch and French West India Islands. It was early foreseen that the public would suffer most from the want of salt. To obviate this inconvenience eight gentlemen entered into a partnership to purchase six swift sailing vessels in Bermuda to be employed in importing that necessary article. They for a season supplied the wants of the people and continued this trade till their vessels were all taken.

Commerce soon began to flow in new channels. The old merchants whose fortunes were easy, unwilling to risk their capital, generally retired from business. A new set who had little to lose by boldly venturing, served their country and rapidly advanced their own interest. Various artifices were used to screen this contraband trade from legal seizure. Some vessels had captains of different nations, and registers of different ports; and were occasionally French, Dutch, English or American property as the exigency of the case required. Notwithstanding all this subtlety many forfeitures were incurred. The increasing demand for imported goods and the stoppage of all exportation to Great Britain, put it so much in the power of adventurers to sell imported articles dear and to purchase country produce cheap, that in the years 1776 and 1777, the safe arrival of two vessels would indemnify them for the loss of one. For the encouragement of trade two insurance companies opened offices which greatly forwarded the extension of commerce. A direct trade to France was soon attempted, and French vessels in like manner found their way into the port of Charlestown. This intercourse in its commencement proved very unfortunate; for out of sixteen vessels richly laden with the commodities of the country, four only arrived

safe. This heavy blow for a little time damped the spirit of enterprise, but it soon revived.

A considerable trade, though much inferior to what had been usual in times of peace, was carried on in this manner for the greatest part of the three first years of the contest when the operations of the British were chiefly confined to the northern States. It received severe shocks from repeated embargoes and the growing depreciation of the paper currency. To subserve military operations the sailing of vessels was several times interdicted. This solely distressed commerce, and prevented the country from obtaining supplies of foreign commodities. It also discouraged strangers from sending their vessels into American ports, as their return, for reasons of State, was so frequently prevented.

When in the course of the war the British turned their arms more immediately against Carolina and Georgia, the trade that had been previously carried on became inconsiderable. Nevertheless, as often as French fleets visited the coast or the absence of British armed vessels was satisfactorily ascertained, the merchants of Charlestown improved their opportunities and sometimes made successful voyages. With the fall of Charlestown all trade in behalf of Americans wholly ceased. The transition from the greatest want of imported articles to the greatest plenty, was instantaneous. In the train of the victorious army was a number of merchants and an immensity of goods. The shelves which for some time had been unoccupied, began once more to bend with the novel load of British manufactures. Such of the inhabitants as had credit or the command of money, easily obtained a supply of all they wanted. The contrast between the eighteen months which preceded, and the eighteen months which followed the surrender of Charlestown was striking; but soon after the expiration of the latter period, commerce again began to languish. Every day added to the probability that the late conquerors would not be able to keep the province. The Americans in a few more months regained nearly all they had formerly lost, and the evacuation of Charlestown was resolved upon by the British. The merchants who came with them were permitted to negotiate for themselves, and on the departure of the royal army obtained permission from the government of the State to remain under the protection of its laws. The impoverished inhabitants of South Carolina now experienced no other want but that of money, for much of the merchandize in Charlestown was left behind at its evacuation by the British. As a substitute for cash they stretched their credit to the utmost, and contracted debts which to several were ruinous and to all inconvenient.

With the return of peace, the Carolinians counted on an extension of their commerce as being no longer fettered with a British monopoly. But they soon found that when they ceased to be British subjects, they lost the advantages attached to that political character; that as aliens they could not trade to the British West India Islands, with which, from the first settlement of the province, they had carried on a lucrative commerce. With the war several had lost their capital and others their credit. Few Carolinians had resources left to enter into competition with the British merchants. In the hands of the latter the bulk of the trade of the country centered, and with them it has more or less continued ever since.

It was not only from this circumstance, but from the superior advantages of trading with Great Britain, that the Carolinians have been commercially connected with Great Britain nearly as much since the Revolution as before. They have a right to trade with all the world, but find it their interest to trade principally with Britain. The ingenuity of her manufacturers—the long credit her merchants are in the habit of giving—the facility of making remittances to her as the purchaser of a great part of the native commodities of Carolina, have all concurred to cement a commercial connection between the two countries. From the increased demand for the manufactures of Britain by the increased inhabitants of Carolina, the latter, as a State, is much more profitable to the former than she ever was when a province. Though the trade of South Carolina to Germany has greatly increased, and that to the Mediterranean, to France, Spain, United Netherlands, Madeira, and Russia, has also increased in the order in which these countries are respectively mentioned; yet the surplus that remains for Great Britain far exceeds all she ever derived from the same country as her colony. It may be confidently asserted that the trade between the two countries for one single year of general peace, free from all interruption, would now be of greater value to Great Britain than all she derived from Carolina for the first half of her colonial existence; or the fifty-three years which were immediately subsequent to the settlement of the province.

The merchants of Carolina do not seem fond of exploring new channels of commerce. There never was but one vessel fitted out in Charlestown for the East Indies. No voyages round the world, to the northwest coast of America, to new or remote countries, have originated there; as far as can be recollected.

The wars that for several years before and after the commencement of the nineteenth century, raged in Europe, have been of great advantage; and also a source of material injury

to the commerce of Carolina. In the first instance the privileges attached to neutral vessels, the extensive marine and enterprising spirit of American navigators, have made their flag the passport for the commodities of most of the belligerent nations. Carolina, as being near to their colonies in the West India Islands and on the Main, came in for a large share of this carrying trade and derived great profits from it. This was called by England, "War in disguise;" as it facilitated the transportation of commodities between the French and Spanish colonies, and their respective mother countries, to effect which their own reduced marine was unequal. Orders, and counter decrees, decrees and counter orders, alternately retaliating not on each other, but on unoffending third persons, followed each other in rapid succession, till neutrals were reduced to the alternative of either abandoning the ocean or subjecting themselves to almost certain capture by one or the other of the belligerents. The laws of nature and nations were disregarded. Both the hostile nations, England and France, so often and so grossly violated the rights of neutrals, that it is difficult to ascertain who was the first or the greatest aggressor. They both deserve the execrations of every friend to the rights of man, or of neutral commerce. The citizens of Carolina, conscious that they had given no just cause of offence to either, humbly hoped to be permitted to live in peace. But this boon was too great to be granted. Each of the nations at war endeavored to goad them into a quarrel with its respective adversary; and to compel them to do so, each hostile nation interdicted them and all Americans from trading with the other and all its dependencies: thereby shutting them out from nine-tenths of the ports with which, by the laws of nations, of nature, and of nature's God, they had a right to trade. That their innocent commerce might be saved from universal seizure, under color of British orders of council, and French decrees, the ruling powers of the United States in December, 1807, directed that the Americans should retire within themselves from all commercial intercourse with foreigners. A coasting trade is all that throughout the year 1808 remained of an extensive commerce, which, though not two centuries old, had grown with such unexampled rapidity as to be the second in the world. That year, which will be long remembered for the privations and sufferings resulting from a general embargo, was an eventful one to the inhabitants of South Carolina. Their foreign trade was in a moment, and with little or no previous notice, completely arrested. To vessels loaded and ready to sail, clearances were denied. Such as having already cleared out, had began their voyages, were pursued, and when overtaken brought back. The price of produce instantly fell more than one hundred per cent. or

rather could not be sold from want of purchasers. The labors of the past year were rendered unavailing to the relief of their owner though pressed with debt and threatened with executions. Factors, wharfingers, and others engaged in the transportation or sale of commodities, suddenly passed over from the full tide of employment to listless inactivity. A general stagnation of business in the midst of that bustling period which is called the crop season, instantly took place. The distresses of individuals were both the causes and effects of the distresses of others. A chain of suffering encircled the community. All this was magnanimously borne by a great majority of the inhabitants. Their reproaches fell not on the administrators of their own government, but on the authors of British orders and French decrees. The Legislature of the State applauded the measures of the general government and their applause was re-echoed by the people. The discontents of a few evaporated in private murmurings, and did not produce a single public expression of disapprobation or impatience. While others contended that they suffered most from the embargo, the Carolinians with justice preferred their claim to the honor of bearing it best. History is confined to the relation of facts, and does not extend to conjectures on contingent events, or it might be added that if the embargo had been as faithfully observed and as patiently borne in every part of the Union as it was in Carolina, the issue would probably have been very different, and certainly more to the honor of the United States.

OF THE ARTS IN SOUTH CAROLINA,

FROM 1670 TO 1808.

CHAPTER VII.

To procure food, clothing, shelter and defence, are primary arts at all times indispensable, but eminently so among the settlers in new countries or such as are inhabited only by savages. The first Europeans who located themselves in Carolina must have derived their food from the waters and woods, except what they brought with them and the maize they obtained from the Indians. Their clothing they must have imported, for the country afforded none other than the skins of beasts. The aborigines had no domestic animals, no stores of food artificially preserved, no cultivated fields or gardens

from which they could supply the wants of the new comers. The embarkation of the latter in January was probably the result of design, that they might be in readiness to improve the approaching season of vegetation. Of their proceedings no records, nor even any tradition has reached us further than that their Governor, William Sayle, set them a noble example of personal industry. Fom the nature of man, we must suppose that their first care was to make some rude shelter to cover them, and their next to prepare the ground for planting. After they had committed to its bosom such seeds as they supposed likely to grow and be useful; it was natural for them to employ their leisure time in fishing and hunting for their immediate support. They had no experience to guide them as to the nature of soils, and seeds or grains suitable to each other. Tradition has informed us that their first essays in planting were with highland grains on the high and sandy soil which was most easily cleared, as being slightly covered with wood. We know that more than once they labored under serious apprehensions of famine, and threatened to compel their Governor to abandon the country. Their agricultural efforts were for some time poorly rewarded, and much of their food and all their clothing was imported. In the arts of fishing and hunting they had advantages over the natives, to whom fish-hooks and guns were unknown. The arts of the new comers in destroying the wild beasts were eminently conducive to their comfort. The flesh of some of them was exquisitely agreeable. The skins of all were serviceable for domestic purposes. They were so common that hunters had no difficulty in finding game. From the Indians the settlers must soon have learned, not only to plant maize, but to dress it in its various forms. This agreeable vegetable, added to fish, oysters, crabs and shrimps, from the water; and deer and wild fowl, obtained by their guns from the land, must have constituted no mean aliment. The rapid increase of domestic animals, brought out by the first settlers, must soon have multiplied animal food to a sufficiency for every useful purpose. To trace the progress of the necessary arts from such rude beginnings to their present improved state is no easy matter.

As £12,000 were expended in equipments for the settlement, it is not improbable that tents were provided for the first and immediate shelter of the settlers on their disembarking. Whether they were or not, the accommodation must have been only temporary. With the Indians it is a prevailing opinion "that they are always at home, except when they are in a house." The rude wigwams of such out of door people, generally formed of bark and the limbs of trees, with-

aid of metal or of any instrument made of metal, must afforded very imperfect models of architecture to the first settlers. Neither stones nor brick were within their grasp. But with the axes, saws and other tools, brought with them, in a country abounding with timber, they might, and doubtless did, construct cabins with such expedition as could not fail to impress the admiring savages with ideas of their superior skill. The first settlers were probably like the first Romans, a "populus virorum," or chiefly males, for it is reasonable to suppose that the dangers and difficulties of the enterprise would have generally deterred the weaker sex from being parties in the earliest embarkations.

This mode of originating a settlement has continued more or less ever since. There always have been in Carolina single men, and sometimes families, migrating from the earlier settlements and breaking ground on bare creation. The difficulties of such undertakings have been constantly lessening, but are always considerable. The time of commencing them is in March, or about the breaking up of the winter. The parties go with family and plantation utensils, a few bushels of corn, and some domestic animals. After fixing on a site, they build in two or three days a cabin with logs cut down and piled one upon another in the form of a square or a parallelogram. The floor is of earth, the roof is sometimes of bark, but oftener of split logs. The light is received through the door, and in some instances through a window of greased paper, or the bottom of a broken glass bottle. Experience, without the aid of philosophy, teaches them that fresh air is harmless; and they are therefore not anxious to exclude it by stopping crevices between the logs. Though sometimes they attempt it by introducing clay between them, especially on the lower parts, or as high as their heads. Shelter being provided, their next care is to provide food. This is frequently accomplished before the few bushels of corn brought with them are expended. To expedite vegetation, the large trees are deprived of their power to shade the ground, by cutting a circle around their trunks. This deadens them by preventing the sap from ascending. The under wood is destroyed. The ground, thus exposed to the action of the sun, is roughly prepared for planting by ploughing or hoeing. To its virgin soil is committed seed corn in March, or early in April. In ninety or one hundred days it is so far advanced as to afford a great deal of nourishment in the form of roasting ears. In six weeks more it is ripe. The increase on this new land is often great, and the grain will keep from one crop to another. Till it is so far grown as to be fit for eating, the settler is supported by corn brought with him, or bought or borrowed from his neighbors;

and with such fresh game as he can kill, or such fresh fish as he can catch. The same process may be repeated each succeeding year, and with increasing advantages, and diminishing difficulties. Thus, in the short space of one summer, the settler is possessed of a fixed residence, and has shelter and provisions from his own resources. His axe and gun in the meantime furnish him with the means of defence against Indians, wild beasts, and robbers. Lightwood or the heart of dry pine logs affords a cheap substitute for candles. The same materials which can easily be procured, enable him to kindle an instantaneous fire for any domestic purpose. The surplus of his crop may be bartered for homespun garments; or if he is happily married, he may convert the wool of his sheep, the flax or cotton of his field into coarse clothing for domestic use. Thus a natural family is constituted, and in a very short time provided with the three great necessaries of life—shelter, food, and clothing. From such humble beginnings hundreds of families in Carolina have been gradually raised to easy circumstances. Such as aspired to nothing beyond this style of living, were among the least valuable citizens; for laziness, not contentment, bounded their ambition; such as by active exertions sought to obtain something higher and better, were among the best citizens; for while they advanced themselves they advanced their country. Settlers of the latter description are not long content with their cabins and lightwood torches. In a few years they construct either a frame house or one made of hewn logs. In either case it is floored with boards, and covered with oak, pine, or cypress shingles; and for the most part consists of two stories or floors, one above another, and is divided into two apartments. A distinction takes place between the dwelling house and kitchen. Other grains besides corn are cultivated. Potatoes, cabbages, turnips, and garden vegetables are raised, and the table is supplied with wholesome and agreeable food. Apple or peach trees are planted, and from them cider is obtained and whiskey distilled. If the latter is used in moderation, the proprietor makes his neighbors tributary to him, and commands their labor and resources to a certain extent, in exchange for his liquor. He purchases one or two slaves. He builds a barn and other out-houses. His children are put to school. He becomes a member of a church. Tea, coffee, and sugar are found on his table—his house is glazed and decently furnished. His fields well secured. His stock enlarged and care taken of it. Cattle, sheep, and hogs are occasionally slaughtered for the support of his family, and the surplus salted for future use. Their skins are dressed and applied to sundry domestic purposes. Their butter supplies the place of oil in cookery, and their fat fur-

nishes him with candles to the exclusion of lightwood torches. His credit is good with the merchant; but of this he makes a a sparing use, dealing mostly for cash. Domestic manufactures are carried to such an extent that over and above clothing his family, some is left to barter for imported merchandize. Their plain native colors no longer satisfy his wife and daughters. The woods are ransacked for dye-stuffs. Indigo, either tame or wild, enables them to give a beautiful blue to their homespun. Sweet leaf, hopea tinctoria, imparts an elegant yellow color to the labor of their hands. Materials for impressing other colors, if desired, may be easily procured from the fields or woods.* Proceeding in this manner in the course of a moderate life, the industrious settler becomes an independent man in easy, and often comfortable, circumstances. If, on the other hand, his whiskey becomes too great a favorite, if habits of laziness increase, and labor is either neglected, or transferred to his slaves, everything is reversed.

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* The art of dyeing ought to make a conspicuous figure among the arts of the Carolinians, for nature has blessed them with a profusion of materials for that purpose. To encourage their attention to this subject, the following facts are mentioned: Captain Felder, near Orangeburg, procured a paste from the leaves of the sweet leaf, hopea tinctoria, and those of the yellow indigo, a species of cassia, for which he obtained one guinea per pound during the American revolutionary war. Unfortunately his process died with him.

Dr. Bancroft, the ingenious author of experimental researches concerning the philosophy of permanent colors, informed the writer of this history that his patent for introducing into England several dye-stuffs, gained for him £5,000 per annum, for some of the last years of his patent. In the course of his experiments, Dr. Bancroft found that some materials for dyeing could be procured in the greatest abundance from the woods of America, which were of equal efficacy with others which commanded a high price in England. This was particularly the case with the bark of the quercus tinctoria or black oak, which is very common in Carolina. Of this he annually imported and sold as much as gained him the above sum.

It may be of service to some persons residing in the country to be informed that Carolina affords, among many other dye-stuffs, the following materials for dyeing the colors to which they are respectively annexed:

Black.—Rhus toxicodendron, *poison oak*—the acrid juice of this small shrub imparts a durable black without any addition. *Gall-berry bush* grows in profusion on the margin of our bays, creeks and ponds; the leaves and berries of it are employed by hatters for giving a black to hats, as also by weavers for staining yarn. Lycopus Europæus, *water horehound*, or *gipsywort*—the juice of this plant also gives a fixed black dye. Actea spicata, *herb christopher* or *baneberries*—the juice of the berries boiled with alum affords a fine black dye or ink. Quercus rubra, *red oak*—the capsules and bark of the oak affords a good fixture for brown or black dyes. Copperas or alum is commonly used for the *mordant*, or setting ingredients, as they are vulgarly called.

Blues.—Indigofera tinctoria, *common indigo;* amorpha fruticosa, *false indigo*—these are well-known dyes. Fraxinus excelsior, *common ash tree*—the inner bark is said to give a good blue color to cloth.

Note.—Preparations of the *cuprum*, *vitriolatum*, or blue stone, are used in dying blues.

Yellow.—Urtica dioica, *common nettle*—the roots of this give a faint yellow to cotton. Rhamnus frangula, *black berry*, *bearing alder*—the bark tinges a dull yellow. Berberis vulgaris, *barberry bush*—the root gives wool a beautiful yellow. Prunus chicasa, *common plum tree*. Pyrus malus, *apple tree*—the barks of both these are used in dyeing yellow. Betula, *birch tree*—the leaves give a faint yellow. Seratula tinctoria, *saw wort*, and contaurea jacea, *common knapweed*, give to wool a good yellow. Polygonum persicaria—*spotted arsemart*. Lysimachia vulgaris, *yellow*

Broken fences, neglected fields, dirty houses, famished slaves, squalid and uneducated children, point out a melancholy retrogradation in useful habits and pursuits. The erection of a distillery, and the purchase of slaves have a decisive influence on the future fortunes and characters of such settlers. They are blessings or curses, as they are used or abused.

The buildings in Charlestown were generally mean, and mostly of wood, before the great fire of 1740. Many of the new buildings erected in place of those which had been destroyed, were of brick, and generally more convenient and constructed with more taste. Twenty or thirty spacious brick houses were built by some of the wealthiest first settlers above one hundred years ago, which still remain serviceable dwellings. These were all in the vicinity of Charlestown and mostly on or near the banks of the Ashley.* Brick buildings have been increasing in Charlestown ever since the year 1740. In it there are a few of Bermudas stone, seven of clay; all the rest are of brick or wood. In Columbia, the college, the jail, the court house, and the foundation of the State house, and three or four private houses, are of brick and all the rest

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willow herb, or *loose strife*. Scabiosa succisa, or *devil's bit*—the leaves impart a yellow color. Hypericum perforatum, *St. John's wort*, the flowers. Calnendula officinalis, *garden marigold*—the petals or flower leaves dried. Cuscuta americana, *american dodder*, or *love vine*, produces a bright, though not permanent yellow; it is however in great esteem. Hopea tinctoria, *horse laurel*, *horse honey*, *sweet* or *yellow leaf*, this shrub abounds in the country, and on James Island—is greedily eaten by cows and horses: the leaves are used for dyeing yellow. Helianthus tuberosa, *tuberose sun-flower*, *Jerusalem* or *ground artichoke*—the petals of this plant are used for imparting a yellow color to wool. Zanthoriza apiifolia, *parsley leaved root*, *yellow root*. Hydrastis canadensis, *yellow root*—both impart a beautiful yellow.

RED.—But few articles of this kind are known in South Carolina. Carthamus tinctoria, *bastard saffron*, is used for cotton; it is said to impart a fine red color to silks—the blossoms only are used. Rumex allosa, *common sorrel*—the roots impart a faint red, but is not lasting. Gallium soreale, *crosswort madder*, and indeed the roots of several species of gallium, impart a red color to wool. Sanginaria canadensis, *puccoon* or *bastard turmeric*—the roots impart a yellowish red color to wool. Cactus opuntia, *prickly pear*—imparts a beautiful red color.

CRIMSON.—Phytolacea discaudea, *American nightshade*, or *poke*—the juice of poke berries boiled in rain-water and set with alum, imparts to wool a beautiful crimson, and when fixed with lime-water, produces a yellow color.

GREEN.—Arundo phragmatis, *common reed* or *cane*—the leaves of which impart to wool a fine green color. This color is principally obtained by first dyeing the stuffs yellow, and dipping them in indigo dye.

BROWN, GOLD, AND OLIVE SHADES.—Acer campestris, *common maple*—the bark imparts to cotton or wool a brownish purple, as does also the tops of the origanum vulgare, or *wild majoram*. Quercus rubra, *red oak*—the inner bark of the tree produces an orange or reddish brown color with alum; set with copperas, a good black. Juglans nigra, *black walnut*—the bark of the tree and fruit imparts to wool or cotton an excellent dark olive color. Humulus lupuli, *common hops*—the plant dyes a good brown. Agrimonia eupatorium, *common agrimony*, affords a tolerable gold color.

* In that vicinity, and Colleton district, a great proportion of the first white owners of the soil of Carolina located themselves. At an election in St. Andrew's in 1806, all the managers and members elected were owners of plantations which had belonged to their respective ancestors above one hundred years. The managers were William Bull and Thomas Cheffelle. The members elected were Elias Lynch Horry, senator, Daniel Elliot Huger, Christopher Fuller, and William Cattle, representatives.

are of wood. In Beaufort their college and fifteen dwelling houses, the arsenal, the Baptist church, and the barracks, are built of a composition of lime, oyster shells, sand, and water, commonly called tappy. The Episcopal and Independent churches, and three dwelling houses, are of brick. All the other buildings are of wood. In Camden, Jacksonborough, and the other towns, there are few or no brick dwellings. Of about one hundred and twenty houses in Georgetown all are of wood, except ten or twelve. Of a thousand houses in the country, not more than two or three are built of brick, stone, or any other materials than wood. Timber is every where abundant and cheap. Bricks are made with considerable labor and expense. Though stones are common in the upper districts, most of them require the hand of the artist to fit them for building. Brick and stone both require the cement of lime, which is procured with difficulty and expense in most parts of the State. Much of the ground in the vicinity of Charlestown is suitable for bricks. These when well burnt are very durable, and suit well with the climate; and oyster shell lime may easily be procured. The first four story house in Charlestown was built in 1806. Within the last eighteen years more lofty, elegant, and spacious brick buildings, both public and private, have been built in Charlestown, than in any preceding thirty or forty years. Within the same period Bartholomew Carrol introduced a new mode of building with clay. Seven houses thus built in Charlestown have hitherto answered very well, and they are as elegant, comfortable, and as free from moisture and all other untoward accidents, as any brick houses, though they cost much less. They stood the hurricane of 1804, which exceeded everything of the kind which had taken place since the year 1752: yet the example has not been followed by a single citizen. Some doubts were at first entertained of the safety of building lofty spacious houses with these materials; but the experience of thirteen years proves that moderate sized clay houses of two or even three stories, may be safely tenanted for that length of time: for aught that yet appears, they may be built as large and last as long as any other houses whatever. Wood in time yields to putrefaction, and may be destroyed by fire. Clay is incapable of the first, and instead of being destroyed by the latter, is only changed into brick.* The intrusion of water might involve danger, but this may with certainty be prevented.

* In the Repertory of Arts, vol. vi., page 369, or the volume for 1797, there is a specification of a patent granted to Henry Walker "for his invention of a method by which houses and other buildings of any dimensions might be erected in one entire mass at much less expense, and which would be equally durable, and less liable to accidents by fire than ordinary buildings." This is nothing but the application of fire, by means of flues, to the different parts of a clay house constructed upon Mr. Carroll's plan. The projector proposes to make not only the walls, but the floors of different stories, the staircases and roof, one entire mass.

Nature has made such ample provision for feeding the inhabitants of South Carolina, that little room was left for art. The sea, rivers, and ponds abound with fish; the banks of salt-rivers, with oysters, prawns, shrimps and crabs; the woods with game. Cattle and hogs multiply astonishingly, with little or no feeding or care. A fertile soil repays with large increase what is planted in it. A little industry in planting, fishing or hunting, and a little foresight and care in preserving what was thus procured from one season to another, readily supplies the wants of nature, as to aliment. With respect to drink, the country generally abounds with wholesome water. In Charlestown and the sea-coast, it has a slight admixture of salt, which is apt to disagree with strangers, but its disagreeable effects are only temporary and easily removed. The further we recede from the sea-shore, the water becomes cooler and better, and in the interior country, is equal to any in the world. Few people, in the simplest state of society, are content with this beverage of nature. Something more stimulant or pungent is generally coveted. Wine, porter, punch, lemonade and cider, are used by some, but the habits of Carolinians are in favor of a mixture of ardent spirits and water, commonly called grog, for a common drink, when water is not deemed satisfactory. This can be commanded almost every moment, and in every place, and is for that reason preferred by most to fermented liquors, which are frequently rendered acid in warm weather; hence breweries are rare while distilleries are common. The art of preparing wholesome agreeable drinks by fermentation, which employs thousands in colder countries, is seldom practiced in Charlestown, and still less in the country.

A Carolinian in one season requires the warm garments adapted to cold climates, in another, those which are suitable for the inhabitants of the torrid zone. Wool, cotton, and flax and the skins of animals, furnish materials for both; but indolence prevents some from applying them to the purposes to which nature designed them, and the love of money has the same effect on others, who exhaust their energies in raising such articles as will sell in market for the greatest amount in money. Where slaves abound, and the staple commodities are raised in the greatest plenty, the least attention is paid to the domestic manufacture of articles for clothing. If the crop succeeds, and afterwards sells for a good price, there is money to buy clothing, but, if either fails, the reverse takes place, and no provision is made against the pinchings of a cold winter. The least wealthy are generally the most provident. The loom and the wheel are most steadily plied among the minor planters or farmers, who are content to follow the guidance of

nature in making provisions for the supply of those wants she has imposed on all the human race. Among such, domestic manufactures now are, and for a long time have been, carried on for almost every necessary family purpose. Tanners and shoemakers are common, who extract extensive accommodations for their fellow-citizens from the skins of animals both wild and tame, though seldom completely dressed; these defend the feet. Equal provision might be made for the head from the wool, the furs, the straw of rice and wheat, the strips of the willow bark, and the palmetto tree;* but these resources are neglected. There are several hatters in the western districts, but very few in the lower parts of the State. Wool, cotton, and flax, either combined or separate, are worked up into plain garments calculated for warmth, but are seldom made of so fine a texture as to be suitable for summer wear. Though domestic manufactures are daily increasing in quantity and improving in quality, and are carried on, especially in the interior parts of the State, to so considerable an extent that their aggregate value is very great, yet they are far short of a sufficiency for the supply of the inhabitants. The genius of the people leads them to agriculture, and they seldom depart from it but when under the pressure of necessity. The time is distant, and a great revolution must take place in the manners of the inhabitants, before they clothe themselves completely from their own resources. Their workshops will probably long remain in Europe or the more northern States; but as the country abounds with the suitable materials, they may, whenever they please, become a manufacturing as well as an agricultural State.†

The arts of defence were at all times necessary to the Carolinians. The Indians were sufficiently numerous to have exterminated them. The Spaniards had been in possession of Cuba and Florida longer before the settlement of Carolina than the whole time which has elapsed since it commenced.

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* Hats made of the palmetto are mentioned in Lawson's History of Carolina, written above a hundred years ago. They have been lately brought into more general use by the newly imported Africans, who on discovering the tree in this country, of their own accord began to make hats of the inner laminæ of its bark. It is probable from these circumstances, that both the tree and the art of making a covering of the head from it are common in Africa. Hats made of palmetto are uncommonly strong and durable.

† Since writing the above, while the public mind was in an impressible state from the privations of the general embargo of 1808, Dr. Shecut, by a series of warm addresses to the people, printed in the city gazette, roused a spirit favorable to manufactures. After sundry town meetings, an association was formed by the name of the Homespun Company, which has been incorporated. Shares in it are taken up, payable by instalments, which, when fully paid, will furnish a capital of about $30,000. A lot of land has been purchased, and preparations are far advanced for manufacturing coarse cloths, and some have been actually completed. Its progress and success are ardently wished for by the friends of American independence.

That the few first settlers, far removed from any friendly aid, were preserved under such circumstances, must be referred to the kindness of providence; for they were unable to have resisted any judicious attack from either Indians or Spaniards. What methods they adopted for self-defence are not precisely known. The earliest recorded act for settling the militia was passed in 1682. The first settlers doubtless brought arms with them, and it is reasonable to suppose, that from the moment of their debarkation some common defensive measures were adopted. From the year 1682, militia laws in succession have made it the duty of every freeman of competent age to be armed and enrolled for military purposes. These laws have always been substantially the same, being framed on the idea that every freeman is a soldier, and the whole body of the people an army liable to be called into actual service when public exigence requires it. With this force the province was exclusively defended for the first ninety years of its existence. In the year 1760 the regular troops of Great Britain for the first time aided the militia of the country against the Cherokee Indians, then in connection with France, at war with the province. On this source of defence, the State continues to rely for security against all internal and external enemies. It is at present respectable; and is divided into two divisions, each commanded by a Major-General. These divisions comprehend nine brigades, thirty-nine regiments of infantry, eight regiments and a squadron of cavalry, and one regiment and a battalion of artillery, besides artillery companies, which are attached to some of the regiments of infantry. The brigades are commanded by as many Brigadier-Generals, and the regiments are commanded by Lieutenant-Colonels. The Governor is Commander-in-Chief of all the militia of the State, both by land and sea. This increases every year. At present it approaches to 40,000 men.

The militia thus organized, are particularly under the direction of a Brigade Inspector, with the rank of Major for each brigade; and of an Adjutant-General holding the rank of Lieutenant-Colonel, who superintends the whole, and reviews the militia regimentally throughout the State from year to year. The duties of the Brigade Inspectors are to attend the regimental and battalion meetings of the militia, composing their several brigades during the time of their being under arms, to inspect their arms, ammunition and accoutrements, superintend their exercise and manœuvres. The duties of the Adjutant-General are to receive and distribute orders from the Commander-in-Chief to the several corps, to attend all public reviews when the Commander-in-Chief shall review the militia, to furnish blank forms of different returns, to receive

from the several officers of the different corps throughout the State, returns of the militia under their command, reporting the actual situation of their arms, accoutrements, and ammunition; their delinquencies, and every other thing which relates to the general advancement of good order and discipline. From all which returns he is to make proper abstracts, laying the same annually before the Commander-in-Chief of the State. The appointment of these officers has much benefitted the public service, as the militia throughout the State are disciplined by the same rules, and are taught to perform the same menœuvres. Much good has also resulted from the attendance of the Governor at reviews. When in real service, the militia are entitled to receive the same pay and rations, and are subject to the same rules as the troops of the United States, except that in case of courts-martial respecting them, the court is to be drawn from the militia of South Carolina.

A naval defence was early contemplated. In the year 1686 an act was passed for raising £300 for building galleys for the defence of the province. From the year 1682 taxes were common for defraying public expenses. How, or for what these expenses were incurred, does not appear; but doubtless in part for defence. Charlestown was early fortified. The precise time is not known, but it is supposed to have been so between the year 1695 and 1704.* From an old map, furnished by Doctor Prioleau, as having long been in possession of his ancient and respectable ancestors, it appears that the forfications of Charlestown extended along East Bay street from Granville's bastion, adjoining Captain Messroon's house; northwardly to Craven's bastion near the Governor's bridge; and from these two bastions in converging lines to Meeting street, so as to strike it on the north, near its junction with the present Cumberland street, and on the south, near to the site of the Presbyterian church; and from one of these points on Meeting street to the other. These limits enclosed almost the whole of Charlestown, which was then improved, and were of difficult approach on the north and south sides, in consequence of two creeks, now obliterated, which then ran nearly parallel to them. On these lines were six bastions, and the outlet was by a draw-bridge near where the National bank now stands. To the southward, westward, and northward of these lines were small farms. The bastions on East Bay stood and were

* The first mention of fortification in the laws is in 1695, when an act was passed for appropriating the proceeds of a duty on liquors imported, and on skins and furs exported, "to a fortification in Charlestown." The preamble to an act "to prevent the breaking down and destroying the fortifications in Charlestown," passed in 1704, states, "that at great expense and labor, Charlestown had been fortified with intrenchments and other works, to make it defensible in this time of war."

serviceable in the revolutionary war; but nothing of them now remains but their foundations. Carteret bastion, at the northwest angle, and Colleton bastion at the southwest angle and the lines between the bastions on the north, south, and west sides, have all been so completley destroyed that not a trace of them remains. A second set of lines to the northward and westward of the first have also been laid waste. It is probable that they were destroyed or fell to pieces between the years 1720 and 1740. Charlestown was in no danger from Indians after the Yamassee war, which terminated shortly before 1720, and had but little to fear from the Spaniards after the settlement of Georgia in 1731. While the province belonged to the King of Great Britain he was attentive to its defense. At different times he presented to it sundry cannon for that purpose. Towards Cooper river the town was defended by a number of batteries, that no ships of an enemy could approach it without considerable hazard. Besides these, the passage up to it was secured by Fort Johnson, built on James Island, about three miles below the town. This fort stands in a commanding situation, within point blank shot of the channel, through which every ship in its way to and from Charlestown must pass. During the Cherokee war in 1760 and 1761, a plan was also formed for fortifying the town towards the land with a horn-work, built of tappy, flanked with batteries and redoubts at proper distances, and extending from river to river; but after a great sum of money was spent on this work, peace being restored, the prosecution of it was discontinued.

From the expulsion of the Yamassees, in 1715, the province had little occasion for the arts of defense against the Indians till after the middle of the eighteenth century, when that immense region, which lies between the western mountains and the river Mississippi, was claimed and contended for both by France and England. To awe the Indians and defend the inhabitants, slight forts were then built at proper distances over a great part of the western country, as has been already related. The era, when the arts of defense were pre-eminently called into exercise, was at the commencement of the American revolution. The old forts had generally gone to ruin. Fort Johnson was in the hands of an officer of the crown. A noble spirit of defense having taken possession of the Carolinians, they took possession of fort Johnson, and repaired it. They built an extensive fortification on Sullivan's Island, and several new forts, which, with old ones repaired, nearly encircled Charlestown both on the land and water side. After the termination of the revolutionary war the inhabitants, presuming on a continuation of peace, paid no attention to sev-

eral of these forts. Others were sold, and their sites converted into private property. In the year 1798, when war between France and the United States was deemed probable, some of them were repaired; but the dispute between the two countries being compromised, they were again suffered to go to ruin. In the present situation of affairs, when disputes exist between this country and both Great Britain and France, works of defense are once more put into a train of being rebuilt. The sites of all the forts having been lately ceded to the United States, the arts of defense will hereafter be conducted by the war department of the national government. It is hoped that such permanent works will ere long be erected as to make it extremely hazardous for any ordinary hostile naval force to enter the harbor of Charlestown. Provision on a smaller scale for the defense of Beaufort and Georgetown is contemplated. On the yeomanry of the country reliance is placed for defense against any land force that is likely to attack from that quarter.

Ship building is connected with the arts of a country and at all times ranks with its manufactures. For carrying on this noble art the Carolinians have great advantages. Their live-oak, their cedars and pines, furnish the best materials for the construction of serviceable and lasting ships. Their live-oak is equal to any wood in the world for the timbers of ships. It is of so solid a texture that, different from most other wood, it sinks in water. An experiment was made some years ago of the comparative weight of English oak and Carolina live-oak. A few cubic inches of the latter weighed eighteen pounds; but the same quantity of the former no more than fifteen. Ships built of live-oak have been known to last upwards of forty years, though employed in the destructive climate of the West Indies, and in carrying sugars, than which nothing is more trying to their timbers.

About the year 1740 the Carolinians began seriously to attend to ship building: five ship-yards were erected; one in Charlestown, three in the vicinity and one at Beaufort. In them twenty-four square rigged vessels, besides sloops and schooners, were built between the years 1740 and 1779.

At the commencement of the American revolution, when South Carolina first adopted the idea of defending herself against all hostile attempts to enforce the arbitrary claims of the British parliament, she had not possession of a single armed vessel. In this extremity, under the pressure of necessity, which could brook no delay, it was agreed to arm merchantmen. A coasting schooner was fitted out with sixteen guns, to which was given the name of the Defense. The Prosper, a merchant ship, was mounted with twenty guns, and soon after another coasting schooner, named the Comet,

was armed with sixteen guns. A galley called the Beaufort was built, and three small vessels were converted into galleys for the protection of the inland navigation. Another coasting schooner was fitted out with ten guns, which was intended for the protection of Georgetown. In the progress of the dispute, after British seizures had induced the Continental Congress to authorize reprisals, the Comet, the Defense and the Beaufort galleys were converted into brigs; and, cruising on the high seas, brought in several prizes. The Legislature erected a navy board, and delegated to Edward Blake, Roger Smith, Josiah Smith, George Smith, Edward Darrell, Thomas Corbet, John Edwards, George Abbott Hall, and Thomas Savage, "authority to superintend and direct the building, buying or hiring of all vessels in the public service, and to direct the outfits of the same, and the furnishing them with necessary ordnance, victualling, provisions and naval stores; to fill vacancies in the navy or marine, and to draw warrants on the treasury for the sums of money necessary for the purposes aforesaid." These gentlemen took charge of the above mentioned public vessels, and also built a brig of fourteen guns, to which they gave the name of the Hornet. This was the whole of the Carolina navy for the first four years of the revolutionary war.

In the year 1777 the Continental frigate Randolph, Captain Biddle, put into Charlestown in distress. After being refitted she sailed on a cruise, and in eight days returned with four rich prizes. This encouraged the State to attempt something in the same way with her little marine. The ship General Moultrie, Captain Sullivan, the brig Polly, Captain Anthony, and brig Fair American, Captain Morgan, belonging to private persons, were taken into public service on this occasion. They in conjunction with the Continental frigate Randolph and the State brig Notre Dame, early in 1778 sailed on a cruise. They descried a vessel to the windward of Barbadoes, and engaged her in the night, presuming that she was a frigate; but she proved to be the Yarmouth, a sixty-four gun ship. After an engagement of seventeen minutes, the Randolph blew up with three hundred and fifteen souls on board, who all perished excepting four; who, after tossing about for four days on a wreck, were discovered and taken up by a passing vessel. Captain Biddle, who lost his life on this occasion, was prized by his country as one of her very best naval officers. Captain Joor, a worthy, brave officer of the first South Carolina regiment, with fifty privates of that corps, acting as marines on board the Randolph, all likewise perished. The other vessels escaping from the Yarmouth, continued their cruise. They took seventeen prizes, but only four of them arrived safe in a friendly port.

The great advantages resulting to the State from their little navy, and the manifold distress sustained by the trade for the want of protection, induced the Legislature to take methods for purchasing or building three frigates. Alexander Gillon was appointed Commodore; John Joyner, William Robeson, and John M'Queen were appointed Captains. The commodities of the country were purchased and shipped on the public account, and the Commodore was authorized to borrow money on the credit of the State. He, with his corps of officers, sailed in the year 1778 for Europe, to prosecute the business on which he was sent. Various embarrassments from intercepted remittances and other causes prevented his completing the object of his mission. He accomplished nothing more than to purchase on credit for the use of the State a large quantity of clothing, and ammunition, and to hire a large frigate from the Prince of Luxembourg, for the term of three years, on condition of allowing the prince one-fourth of the prizes captured while she cruised, at the risk and expense of South Carolina. After innumerable difficulties were surmounted, this frigate began to cruise, and in a short time captured several valuable prizes. Her commander had also the sole direction of the Spanish and American marine forces, which, in May 1782, reduced the Bahama Islands under the crown of Spain. The fleet, consisting of eighty-two sail, which undertook this enterprise, was conducted by Commodore Gillon, from Havana, through the dangerous navigation of the Providence channel. Soon after the termination of this expedition the frigate arrived in Philadelphia. After being completely repaired at an immense expense, she put to sea from that port under the command of Captain Joyner. On the second day after she left the Capes of Delaware she was captured by three British frigates. In this spirited attempt to equip a navy, the expenses far exceeded the profits. It cost the State of South Carolina upwards of two hundred thousand dollars.

Since the termination of the revolution, ship building has been resumed and prosecuted with spirit in South Carolina. In the year 1798 the frigate John Adams, carrying thirty-two guns, was built at Cochran's ship-yard by Paul Pritchard.

The government of a country must be long settled, and the inhabitants much at their ease before the fine arts command their steady and continuing attention. This is doubtless the reason that they have made so little progress in South Carolina as scarcely to merit a place in its history. Sculpture, as an art, cannot be said to have any existence in the State; and engraving is only in its infancy. Thomas Coram has merit as a self-taught engraver, and James Akin has obtained dis-

tinction in the same art, but notwithstanding has found it for his interest to seek the reward of his ingenuity elsewhere than in the land of his nativity. There is some good music in Carolina; but almost all the eminent performers are foreigners, or the children of a few such as have domesticated themselves in the country.

Many youths of both sexes discover talents for drawing, but few have either the leisure or opportunities requisite to raise them to distinguished eminence. Among female artists the first place is due to Miss Rosella Torrans and her sister Mrs. Eliza Cochran. In landscape painting they are exceeded by none. From their assiduity in continuing to devote a portion of their time almost daily to the study and practice of this polite accomplishment, their improvement must continue to advance. Thomas Coram, by an innate love of the art and great industry, has far exceeded what could have been expected from his slender opportunities for improvement. His picture of the presentation of children to the Savior of the world, which he executed from a design of Benjamin West, and gave to the orphan house, is a work of extraordinary merit. It does great honor to the elegance of his taste and the liberality of his heart. Charles Fraser, who never was beyond the limits of the State, and has had his time engrossed by legal studies, has discovered so much taste and genius for painting, that nothing but leisure, traveling and practice is wanting to elevate him to first rate distinction among the professors of that elegant art. Washington Alston has enjoyed advantages in this line beyond any other Carolinian. From his enthusiastic attachment to the art, manifested by the sacrifices he has made to enable him to prosecute his studies—from his correct taste and persevering industry, the public anticipate with confidence that his talents will do honor both to himself and his country. Carolina, and indeed America, is deficient in that critical knowledge which is necessary to make such a nice discrimination of the comparative merit of artists as would stimulate their exertions by judicious applause proportioned to their respective grades of eminence. It is also too young, and too poor in men of taste, talents and wealth, to reward her native sons for devoting their whole time to any of the fine arts. In this respect our infant country is very far behind the ancient and refined nations of Europe. It is no matter of wonder that West, Trumbull and Copley, have sought for a reward of their talents elsewhere than in their native country.

THE NATURAL HISTORY OF SOUTH CAROLINA.

CHAPTER VIII.

Of the interior of the soil of South Carolina little is known. The cultivation of its surface has so fully employed the energies, and so amply rewarded the labors of the inhabitants, that their inquiries seldom penetrated to any considerable depth beneath it. The superabundance of wood precluded all necessity for ransacking the bowels of the earth for coal. This for the most part lies lower than eighty feet, the greatest depth to which the soil of Carolina has ever yet been penetrated. In addition to the common agricultural operations on the face of the soil, it was occasionally penetrated for the interment of the dead, for cellars, and the foundations of houses, for obtaining water, for carrying off superfluous moisture by drains and ditches, and for the extension of inland navigation. From these sources we know that in Charlestown and near the sea-coast, water for the most part springs about six or eight feet from the surface—that if the digging is continued, it springs so abundantly that it is difficult to penetrate much lower, and if that difficulty is conquered the water is too brackish for domestic use. We also know that our descent from the surface of highland in the low country is most generally through a sandy soil; but when we penetrate through river swamps, we frequently meet with the trunks of large trees which appear to have been buried for ages; and that as far as these swamps have been penetrated, they consist of a rich blue clay in a black soft mould of inexhaustible fertility.

In digging for domestic purposes, near the ocean, we have seldom penetrated more than ten or twelve feet. To go much deeper was generally reputed worse than labor lost, for it always introduced us to bad water. Mr. Longstreet conceived the idea that by penetrating forty or fifty feet he would get below the bad water, and find a plentiful supply of a purer fluid than the surface afforded. To bring this theory to the test of experience, he began in 1803 to dig in a vacant lot in Archdale street. For the first eleven feet nothing uncommon presented. The next stratum, eighteen inches, was a black marsh mud and sand. This suddenly changed to a yellow sand and clay, and continued so for twenty inches, then suddenly resumed the black appearance and gradually changed to mud. Mr. Longstreet next came to a bed of oyster, clam, and conch shells, many of which were entire; this stratum extended three feet. A yellow sand, intermixed with pow-

dered shells was next presented, and continued for two feet. Between the twelfth and twentieth foot from the surface, muddy brackish water filled the well so fast as finally to overcome the most strenuous exertions to empty it. This chiefly ascended from the bottom; for effectual precautions were adopted to prevent any quantity of water from entering by the sides. In such a crisis, a mind of less energy than Mr. Longstreet's would have abandoned the project. Instead of this, he replaced a considerable portion of the earth in the well, and laying aside his spade, drove down a hollow tube of three inches diameter in the cavity of which a machine for boring was introduced. These were made to penetrate through the earth to the depth of fifty-four feet. The soil between the 20th and 47th foot was a continued dry, stiff, black clay. It was of such a consistence as to bear the chissel or plane, and to be capable of being cut into any shape. Knives are sharpened by drawing them over its surface when made smooth. Another stratum of shells presented itself for the next two feet. The black clay then became less rigid, and soon terminated in sand with little resistance to the operator. On descending two or three feet the water rushed up the tube forty-eight feet, so as to be only six feet from the surface, and with such rapidity as to yield fifteen gallons in a minute. The joy of the projector on this event may be more easily conceived than expressed. This water, after exposure to the air for a few minutes, resembled common well-water in taste and appearance, and was nearly of the same temperature. It readily lathered with soap, and gave satisfactory evidence of its being softer than common pump-water. It was free from lime, iron, copper, lead, vitriolic acid, or any acid whatever in a separate state; but contained a small proportion of common salt, rather less than is to be found in common wells.

From the result of this experiment, Mr. Longstreet was sanguine in the belief that if he had been supported so as to carry down a circular close wall of forty feet diameter to the depth of sixty or seventy feet, he would have got below all bad water, and have commanded an inexhaustible reservoir of what was good; perhaps derived by subterranean communications from the upper country but certainly from a source sufficiently high to cause its ascent to the vicinity of the surface; and that this water percolated through the bowels of the earth would be free from impurities on its surface, and in quantities sufficient for the supply of Charlestown. After one thousand dollars had been expended, the further prosecution of the subject was dropped; but under an engagement to be resumed when adequate funds were provided for the purpose. The only advantage that has resulted from the experiment is

a little more information of the interior of that portion of the State on which Charlestown is erected.*

Another experiment was made nearly at the same time, but for very different purposes; which demonstrates the possibility of enjoying health in Charlestown though in a subterraneous residence. On the night of the 9th of October, 1802, William Withers, a horse dealer from Kentucky, descended through a grate into one of the covered arched drains that pervade the streets of Charlestown and passed along the same till he was opposite to the South Carolina bank. He then began operations to make a subterraneous passage across from the drain to the vaults in which the cash of the bank was deposited. In prosecuting this business he passed ninety days and nights under ground and in a prone posture. For the first twenty-two days after his descent, the weather was so uncommonly warm as to be on an average nearly seventy-nine on Fahrenheit's thermometer. For the last sixty-eight days, the heat varied from seventy-four to thirty-three on the same instrument. In the first period yellow-fever, intermitting, and other fevers of warm seasons were common among the inhabitants. In the last period pleurisies, colds, and catarrhal complaints were in like manner frequent; yet all this time Withers enjoyed good health, with the exception of a few slight headaches and pains in his bones, which generally went off with perspiration in the course of his next repose. He had no blanket nor covering of any kind but his light ordinary apparel which he never put off. He was sometimes exposed to serious danger from the springing of water, and his bed was earth which was often damp. His food was mostly bread, butter, and cheese; and, with the exception of one bottle of wine, water was his only drink. Butter burning in a lamp afforded him light.

Three days frequently passed without discharging the contents of his bowels.

The enjoyment of so much health for so long a time under

* It is submitted to the water company of Charlestown, whether, in case of their meeting with difficulty in procuring a sufficiency of water, it would not be worth while to make a further experiment on Mr. Longstreet's plan. That there are subterraneous streams of water running to the ocean from distant high lands is probable, and in some cases certain. In Modena, in Italy, on digging into the earth, a column of water rushed above the surface. The same is said to have taken place lately in the city of Washington. As the land of this State ascends about three feet every mile, if by accident an experimenter on Mr. Longstreet's theory should strike a subterraneous st . m, flowing from any distant western source, its ascent above the surface wou d be great, and might be made very useful. If it only came from the distance f twenty or thirty miles, it might have an elevation sufficient to discharge water i the highest stories of ordinary houses in Charlestown. The first experiment, th gh made under great disadvantages, produced an ascent of forty-eight feet. The project is founded on such plausible grounds as to merit further trials. Elkington's successful plan for draining lands is founded on principles that corroborate Longstreet's theory.

such circumstances, was, in addition to the excitement of his mind, probably owing to the absence of several of the causes of diseases. The heat of well water and of the earth a few feet below the surface is generally the same in all countries as the medium heat on an average of the different seasons in these countries respectively. This, in Charlestown, is sixty-five, or at most sixty-six, on Fahrenheit's thermometer. Withers must have enjoyed a steady unvarying atmosphere of this temperature, while the inhabitants above ground were panting under a heat of eighty, or distressed with the cold of thirty-three on the same instrument, and subject to all the changes of an atmosphere vibrating from one extreme to the other.

The attempts at inland navigation in Carolina have extended our knowledge of the interior of its soil. The cuts which have been made across peninsulas, near the sea-coast, have brought to view such quantities of cypress timber as can only be accounted for on the idea that in former times an immense number of large trees of that species of wood grew there.*

In digging the Santee canal twenty-two miles across from Santee to Cooper river, the workmen met with different strata of clay, mud, sand, and soil. In one part there was a stratum of mud resembling soft-soap or jelly from about four to six inches deep, entirely free from any particle of grit. It lay on a stratum of lime stone. The lime stone met with in digging was generally covered first with sand, then clay, and lastly soil. In digging the summit canal which penetrated fifteen feet below the surface, there was a variety of strata, among which, was a very fine white clay; there was a stratum of red clay resembling red ochre. In this part of the canal the workmen got down to the natural bed of springs. In the course of this extended line of digging, were found trunks of trees seven feet below the surface, also many oyster shells of uncommon size, and bones of monstrous animals, unlike to any which are now known to exist. The latter were found eight or nine feet under the ground, and lying so near together as to make it probable that they originally belonged to one and the same

* "That part of the inland passage between Charlestown and Savannah, beginning at Wappoo Cut, and ending at Bear's Bluff, where it falls into Edisto river, I have examined with some attention, and can affirm that a great part of this distance has been a cypress swamp. The first stump is at the landing of Abraham Waight, Esq., deceased, on St. John's Island, six miles east of new cut; and this cut is full of them, and on them several vessels have been damaged. I have examined them at low tide, and at Mr. Young's place, eight miles west of new cut. Mr. George Rivers owns three or four hundred acres of this high marsh land, now covered with small cedars. This I examined three years ago, and found many stumps and large logs of cypress; and below this place, on the Wadmalaw side, a few trees are still growing near the high lands. The spring tides cover these lands. I believe this is the case through the whole of the inland passage, wherever it passes through high marsh lands accessible only to the spring tides."—*Extract of a letter from Benjamin Reynolds, Esq., to the author, dated 1st December*, 1808.

animal. Its size may be conjectured from its ribs, one of which, when dug up was nearly six feet long; and from one of its jaw teeth which was eight inches and a quarter long, three inches and a half wide, its root eleven inches and a half long. The depth of the tooth from its surface to its bottom was six inches and a half. The other parts of the skeleton were in a relative proportion.

The necessity for digging wells in the interior country is much less than on the sea-coast, for natural springs of water are more common as we advance towards the western mountains; where these fail, water cannot be generally procured without digging from fifteen to eighty feet. The intermediate soil is for the most part clay, but sometimes sand. Along the sea-coast, and for a hundred miles westward, South Carolina is generally low and flat, thence to its western extremity it is diversified, with hills rising higher and higher till they terminate in the Alleghany mountains, which are the partage ground of the eastern and western waters. In the vallies between these hills, a black and deep loam is found. This has been formed by abrasion from the hills, and from rotten trees and other vegetables which have been collecting for centuries.

Carolina, lying on the east side of the partage ground between the eastern and western waters, is considerably lower than the corresponding parts of the United States which are on its west side. Hence it follows that when the snows melt, or heavy rains fall on the mountains, much more of the water proceeding from these sources is determined to the Atlantic ocean than to the river Mississippi, in consequence of which, we are often too wet, while our western neighbors are too dry.

There are some circumstances which make it probable that the whole of the low country in Carolina was once covered by the ocean. In the deepest descent into the ground, neither stones or rocks obstruct our progress, but everywhere, sand or beds of shells. Intermixed with these at some considerable depth from the surface, petrified fish are sometimes dug up. Oyster shells are found in great quantities at such a distance from the present limits of the sea-shore, that it is highly improbable they were ever carried there from the places where they are now naturally produced. A remarkable instance occurs in a range of oyster shells extending from Nelson's Ferry, on the Santee river, sixty miles from the ocean in a south-west direction, passing through the intermediate country till it crosses the river Savannah in Burke county, and continuing on to the Oconee river, in Georgia. The shells in this range are uncommonly large, and are of a different kind from

what are now found near our shores, they are in such abundance as to afford ample resources for building and agriculture. On Doctor Jamieson's plantation six miles northeast from Orangeburg, and about eighty miles from the Atlantic ocean, ten hands can raise in a week as many of these oyster shells from their bed, though seven feet below the surface, as when burnt will yield twelve hundred bushels of lime. In digging for them there is nothing but common earth for the first seven feet, the soil for the next four feet is a whitish colored mass, intermixed with shells of the aforesaid description; a blue hard substance resembling stone succeeds for the next three or four feet, of this, lime may be made but of an inferior quality; under this is sand, the depth of which is unknown.

The sea-coast of Carolina is intersected by inlets, creeks and marshes. From their meanderings and junctions many islands are formed.* Some of these are increased on their western extremities by accretions, and diminished on their eastern border by the operation of the ocean dashing against them. On such of these as are contiguous to the main, mon-

* "I have been upon all the sea islands and hunting islands, from Sullivan's to Savannah river: some of them are bedded on clay on the north side, some on the south; whilst others, say St. Helena and Hiltonhead, have no clay at all. Their surfaces are nearly uniform. The vallies and rising grounds run northeast and southwest through their whole extent, and from their corresponding angles, indicate their formation under the water. The small islands lying between them and the hunting islands have the same form and figure. It is remarked by many, that all the small creeks running in and on each side of the sea islands, have grown much wider than they were forty years ago, cutting down the bluffs from ten to forty feet. At Edisto Island I was shown by Mr. Joseph Jenkins, a few years ago, a large live oak in the creek, now the abode of sheepshead and other fishes, which he assured me was a shade to the school-house when he was a boy. The hunting islands which skirt the sea islands must be considered as new land, and appear to have been formed above water; and though many of the sand hills follow the direction of the coast, yet internally, and at their endings, they lie in all directions, and must have received their figure from the prevailing winds. That the ocean now advances on the shore, I have no hesitation in believing, for the sea has very much narrowed the belt which is the barrier between them, and one of the islands opposite Edisto Island is pierced through in some places. Nevertheless, these islands must have existed a long time, since there are live oak and pine trees on some of them as large as any perhaps in the State. Hiltonhead has no island to skirt it; but yet it has the same belt of sand-hill land. This is also the case with Simmond's Island, the north side is clay, and similar to St. John's Island. On the southwest end of Edisto is a mound of shells from fifteen to twenty feet high, and its base half an acre of land. It is called the Spanish Mount; but as savages drew the better part of their subsistence from the sea, from the many banks of shells scattered about this point of land, I apprehend that there was a large settlement of Indians in the vicinity, and that this pile of shells may have been placed there by some regulations among themselves. On St. Helena are two mounds of human bones. The one fifteen, the other ten feet high. One covers a quarter of an acre, the other less. They are called "The Indian Burial-Place." I saw one of them opened when I was a lad, and well remember the red beads and broken earthen vessels among the bones, and these last lying in every direction. The Indians say that a great battle had been fought there, long before the white people were heard of. This is what I heard from my family, who were among the first settlers of this country; my grandfather, Richard Reynolds, being for a long time Commander of the English garrison first established on Port Royal Island."—*Extract of a letter from Benjamin Reynolds, Esq., to the author, dated Wadmalow, December* 1, 1808.

uments of Indian antiquities are occasionally found. Other islands are doubtless wholly of marine origin, and are accumulations of recrements thrown up by the action of the Atlantic waters. The main land, contiguous to these islands, is level with a surface of light black earth, on a stratum of sand. It is free from stones for eighty or one hundred miles, and has a gradual ascent. This has been mathematically ascertained by Mr. Peraux to be three feet for every mile of the first eleven from Charlestown. The high lands in the low and middle parts of the State generally produce extensive forests of pine, but yield poor returns for what is planted in them. These pine barrens, as they are commonly called, have little or no underwood, and are occasionally intersected with veins of fertile land, producing valuable timber. Swamps and bogs abound in the low country, which empty their waters into some river or inlet, communicating with the sea. Savannahs or plains, without trees, are also common, and some of them cover a considerable extent of the surface. The margins of the rivers in Carolina are of inexhaustible fertility, and make excellent rice plantations. These are composed of a large proportion of dark blue clay, and near the sea are often covered with rushes and salt water sedge, and extend themselves to the adjacent high pine lands. These swamps in their natural state abound with useful timber of various kinds, and when cleared, they reward their cultivators with plentiful crops, especially in seasons that are exempt from freshets. In the intervals between the rivers there are often inland swamps, fresh water lakes, and great quantities of low level land which, after heavy rains, continue for a long time overflowed. The remainder is dry, and for the most part sandy.

The soil of South Carolina is naturally, and for the purposes of taxation, politically divided into the following classes: 1. tide swamp; 2. inland swamp; 3. high river swamp, or low grounds, commonly called second low grounds; 4. salt marsh; 5. oak and hickory high land; 6. pine barren. The tide and inland swamps are peculiarly adapted to the culture of rice and hemp; the high river swamps to hemp, corn, and indigo. The salt marsh has hitherto been for the most part neglected, but there is reason to believe that it would amply repay the expense and labor of preparing it for cultivation. The oak and hickory high land is well calculated for corn and provisions, and also for indigo and cotton. The pine barren is the least productive species of our soil, but is the most healthy. A proportion of it is an indispensably necessary appendage to a swamp plantation. It is remarkable that ground of this last description, though comparatively barren, affords

nourishment to pine trees which maintain their verdure through winter, and administer more to the necessities and comforts of mankind than any other trees whatever. This may perhaps in part be accounted for by the well known observation that much of the pine land of Carolina is only superficially sandy; for by digging into it a few feet the soil in many places changes from sand to clay.

The tide swamps are of so level a nature that frequently a few inches of water can cover them for agricultural purposes. These in the Legislative valuation of lands for taxation form the first grade of land in the State. The swamps above the influence of the tides are subject to freshets and therefore hazardous, but in other respects are of immense value.

From this description of the low country it is apparent that there must be a predominance of moisture, and from the cooperation of heat, there is a strong tendency to putrefaction. From the same causes and the presence of acid gasses floating in the common atmosphere, metals are very subject to rust. This is particularly the case with iron which when exposed to the air loses in a short time all its brightness and much of its solidity.

In the middle country sand hills arise to a considerable height above the adjacent lands. Very little is to be seen growing upon them and that little is of a diminutive size. The soil produces scarcely any grass and is often so sandy that the footsteps of animals walking over it may be distinctly traced. On the low grounds between these hills, a rich mould is sometimes deposited and always fertilizes the soil. When rivers run through them, their margins are very rich and yield large crops.

In this middle country the high hills of Santee are situated. These arise two hundred feet above the adjacent lands. Their soil is a mixture of sand, clay, and gravel, and produces highland grain and cotton in abundance. Their inhabitants enjoy the comforts of life together with health, pleasure, and profit, in a greater combination than is common in the southern States.

Stones and rocks, hills and dales, begin to appear and long moss to disappear about the falls of the rivers. Loose stones on or near the surface are rarely so numerous as to be inconvenient or troublesome. A stone wall or a stone house is seldom to be found in South Carolina. Near the falls, the soil changes to a dark and fertile mould on a stratum of clay or marle. The water course are rapid, and as they pass along emit a guggling sound never heard in the low country. The hills swell into more towering heights and gradually form the base of mountains. These divide the State from Tennessee and the

eastern waters from those which empty themselves into the Mississippi.

The western limits of Carolina so much resemble the apex of a triangle, the base of which is on the sea-coast, that only four of the twenty-five districts into which it is divided can be called mountainous. These are the districts of Pendleton, Greenville, Spartanburg, and York. In that part of the State seven or eight mountains run in regular direction. Among them the Table mountain in Pendleton district is the most distinguished. Its height exceeds 3,000 feet, and thirty farms may be distinguished at any one view from its top by the unaided eye. Its side is an abrupt precipice of solid rock 300 yards deep, and nearly perpendicular. The valley underneath appears to be as much below the level as the top of the mountain towers above it. This precipice is called the Lovers Leap. To those who are in the valley it looks like an immense wall stretching up to heaven. At its base lie whitening in the sun the bones of various animals who had incautiously advanced too near its edge. Its summit is often surrounded with clouds. The gradual ascent of the country from the sea-coast to this western extremity of the State, added to the height of this mountain, must place its top more than 4,000 feet above the level of the Atlantic ocean; an eminence from which vessels crossing the bar of Charlestown might be seen with the aid of such improved glasses as are now in use. Large masses of snow tumble from the side of this mountain in the winter season, the fall of which has been heard seven miles. Its summit is the resort of deer and bears. The woods produce mast in abundance. Wild pigeons resort to it in such flocks as sometimes to break the limbs of the trees on which they alight.

The Oolenoy mountain is in the vicinity of the Table mountain. From it a cataract of water descends six or seven hundred feet. This forms the southern head branch of Saluda river.

The summit of the Oconee mountain near the head waters of Keowee and Tugoloo rivers is five or six hundred yards above the adjacent country. From it there is a most beautiful prospect of Georgia and of the Cherokee mountains. The country between Oconee and Table mountain is generally wild, but all the vallies are highly cultivated. Some of them have produced one hundred bushels of corn to the acre. From the numerous settlements in them, and the hoards of children who rush from every cottage to gaze on travelers it is apparently the most populous part of the State. When the country which is overlooked from these mountains is cultivated and adorned with villages and other embellishments, it will

afford such brilliant prospects as may give full employment to the pencils of American artists. In this part of Carolina, Indians have resided for time immemorial. Here were situated their towns, Eseneka, Keowee, Eustaste, Foxaway, Kulsage, Oustinare, Socony, Estato, Warachy, Noewee, Conorass, Tomassee, and Cheokee, besides many others whose names are now forgotten. In the midst of them near the eastern bank of the Keowee river stood fort George, in which a garrison was long continued for the protection of that part of the State. But time has swept away both the one and the other. A pellucid stream which meanders among these mountains makes two falls of nearly fifty feet each; then calmly flowing about two hundred yards it is precipitated upwards of eighty feet. This last descent is extremely beautiful. The rock over which it tumbles is in the form of a flight of short steps. At its summit it is about twelve feet broad but increases as it descends to ninety-six. The protuberances, which resemble steps, break the current into a thousand streams. These pour in every direction and cover their moss grown channels with foam. The original stream is small and turbulent. Although the weight of water is not great it is so dissipated as to produce a most beautiful effect. About four miles from General Picken's farm there is another cataract; to approach which it is necessary for visitants occasionally to leap, crawl, or climb. The mountains arise like walls on each side of the stream which is choked by the stones and trees that for centuries have been falling into it. The cataract is about one hundred and thirty feet high, and some sheets of the stream fall without interruption from the top to the bottom. All the leaves around are in constant agitation from a perpetual current of air excited by this cataract, and causing a spray to be scattered like rain to a considerable distance. Another cataract may be observed descending from the side of a mountain about six miles distant. This is greater and more curious than the one just described.

Paris's mountain is situated in Greenville district; from it the Table mountain, the Glassy, the Hogback, the Tryon, and King's mountain are distinctly visible. Many farms are also to be seen from this beautiful eminence. The rocks on its southern side are adorned with the fragrant yellow honeysuckle. Reedy river is formed by the streams which flow from its surface. A spring impregnated with iron and sulphur issues from its side. This is said to cure ringworms and other diseases of the skin.

The Glassy and Hogback mountains are situated near the boundary line of Greenville and Spartanburg districts. Waters flow from them which form the sources of the Tyger and

Pacolet rivers. These at their fountains are too cold to be freely drank in summer. On these mountains there are four or five snug level farms, with a rich soil and extensive apple and peach orchards. Cotton and sweet potatoes do not thrive thereon. The settlements are all situated on the south side, for the north is unfit for cultivation on account of prodigious rocks, precipices and bleak cold winds. Every part, even the crevices of the rocks, is covered with trees and shrubs of some kind or other. The chesnut trees are lofty, and furnish a quantity of excellent food for swine. In these mountains are several large caverns and hollow rocks, shaped like houses, in which droves of hogs shelter themselves in the great snow storms which occur frequently in winter. The crops of fruit, particularly of apples and peaches, never fail. The climate in these mountains is less subject to sudden changes, than in the plains below. Vegetation is late, but when once fairly begun, is seldom destroyed by subsequent frosts. Neither are there any marks of trees being struck with lightning, or blown up by storms. It is supposed that the mountains break the clouds, and that the lightning falls below; for there the effects of it are frequently visible. On the Hogback mountain there is a level farm of thirty or forty acres of the richest high land in South Carolina. This is covered with large lofty chesnut trees, with an undergrowth of most luxuriant wild pea-vines, very useful for fattening horses. These animals while there, are free from flies. The ascent to this mountain is very steep for about two miles; but with the exception of thirty or forty yards, expert horsemen may ride all the way to its summit. The prospect from it towards the north and west, exhibits a continued succession of mountains one ridge beyond another, as far as the eye can see.

From a spring on one of the small mountains, between the Hogback and the Tryon, water is conveyed more than a thousand feet in a succession of wooden troughs, to the yard of a dwelling house built by Mr. Logan. It empties into a large reservoir from which, when filled, it runs over, and soon mingles with the adjacent north Pacolet river, which is there a very small stream. Thus a great domestic convenience is enjoyed by a single mountaineer, which has not yet been obtained by the opulent city of Charlestown.

On King's mountain, in York district, the real limestone rock has been discovered. This has also lately been found in Spartanburg district. Before these discoveries the inhabitants had frequently to haul lime for domestic use upwards of an hundred miles.

Beautiful springs of water issue in plentiful streams from these mountains. They also for the most part produce a pro-

fusion of grass, and are clothed to their summits with tall timber. The intermediate vallies are small, but of great fertility. Hence the pastoral life is more common than the agricultural. The soil of the Table mountain is excellent; that of the others is stony and less fertile. But chesnut, locust, pine, oak, and hickory trees grow on them. The champaign country which becomes more level as it approaches the sea, affords an interminable view finely contrasted with the wild irregularities of these immense heights which diversify the western extremity of Carolina.

Only a small part of South Carolina is favored with mountains, but every part of it is intersected with rivers. Its side, which borders on the sea, is watered by the Waccamaw, Peedee, Black river, Santee, Wandow, Cooper, Ashley, Stono, Edisto, Ashepoo, Combakee, Coosaw, Broad, and Savannah rivers. Some of these have two mouths, others have several heads or branches. The Santee, in particular, is formed by a junction of Congaree and Wateree rivers. The same stream, which below is called Wateree, passes in the upper country by the name of the Catawba. Congaree is formed by a junction of Broad and Saluda rivers. Broad river unites in its stream three rivers, the Enoree, the Tyger, and the Pacolet, and afterwards becomes a component part of the Congaree; which last named river, uniting with the Wateree, takes the name of Santee.

Most of these rivers have a margin of swamp extending from half a mile to three miles. The short ones head in swamps, but the long ones in the mountains or other high grounds. They all run in a south-eastern direction from their heads to the sea, which if extended, would cross the mountains and vallies in an acute angle to the south of east. Waccamaw river takes its rise in North Carolina, and empties into Georgetown bay. Broad, Coosaw, Port Royal, and other short rivers, are properly arms of the sea. Their waters are deep, and their navigation safe. Broad and Port Royal rivers can safely and conveniently accommodate a large navy. They insulate a great part of Beaufort district, and by their windings and junctions form Islands. These generally are suitable to the culture of cotton or indigo.

Wando river empties itself into Cooper about three miles above Charlestown. It is navigable for about twenty miles, and then heads in swamps. Cooper river rises in Biggen and other swamps, and is about one thousand four hundred yards broad, where it empties itself into Charlestown harbor. It is navigable by schooners and sloops to Watboo bridge, about fifty miles, and its eastern branch admits like vessels as far as Huger's bridge.

Ashley river originates in the Cypress and other contiguous swamps, and, uniting with Cooper river at White Point, forms Charlestown harbor. Its navigation for sea vessels extends only a few miles, but for sloops and schooners as far as Bacon's bridge. Its width opposite to Charlestown is about 2,100 yards.

Stono river rises in swamps not far distant from the ocean, into which it empties itself between Keywaw and Coffin land. Its navigation extends above Rantowle's and Wallace's bridge, but to no great distance.

Ashepoo river springs from swamps in the low country, and empties itself into St. Helena sound. Its navigation extends nearly the whole of its short course.

Combakee river originates in Salt Catcher swamp. Its navigation for schooners and vessels, is about thirty miles. It empties itself into the Atlantic ocean through St. Helena sound.

Black river takes its rise in the middle country from the high hills of Santee. It winds between Santee river and Lynch's creek, and having formed a junction with the Peedee, their united waters are emptied into Georgetown bay. Its navigation for schooners and sloops extends many miles up its stream, and for flat bottomed boats, flats and rafts, as far as its forks.

Edisto river is too shallow to admit boats of heavy burden to any considerable distance. In a full river the navigation of its northern branch is open as far as Orangeburg, and its southern branch is also navigable some miles, until it is interrupted by islands and shoals. When the river is low, it is fordable at Parker's ferry, about thirty-five miles from the sea. This river takes its rise in the middle country from the ridge of highland which lies between the Congaree and Savannah rivers. These two last mentioned rivers, like all others which terminate in high lands, are subject to freshets.

Savannah river is bold and deep, and its navigation extends from the sea to Augusta for boats of seventy tons. At this place the falls of the river commence. Beyond it the navigation is continued for sixty miles to Vienna for boats of thirty tons or more.

The navigation of Santee river extends from the sea to the fork of the Congaree and Wateree rivers, thence up the Wateree to Camden on one side, and up the Congaree to Granby on the other, for boats of seventy tons. At these places the falls and rapids of the rivers commence; their upper branches are dispersed extensively over the country.* Sometimes they are

* Broad river, one of the branches of the Congaree, is the northern and eastern boundary or Union district. The Enoree river is its western and southern boundary. Besides these two rivers, the Pacolet runs through its northern portion,

obstructed by rocks, but in general their current is gentle and deep. In light boats and full rivers several hogsheads of tobacco have been brought down their streams with safety.

The Peedee also stretches from the sea towards the mountains, through the northern part of the State. Its free navigation extends from the sea to Greenville for boats of seventy tons, and from thence to Chatham for boats of lesser draught. Here the navigation is impeded by rocks and shallows, although in full rivers boats of light burden descend with the stream from North Carolina.

These large rivers, by innumerable tributary streams, spread themselves throughout all the upper country. Some of their branches are wider than the rivers themselves. Keowee, though two hundred yards wide for several miles above its confluence with the Tugoloo, is the narrowest of these two streams whose united waters take the name of Savannah river. Hence when the accumulated waters of rain and snow pour down their channels, the adjacent low lands and intervals are overflowed with destructive freshets.

The natural advantages for mills and other labor-saving machinery, are great in most of the upper districts, but especially in those at a moderate distance from the mountains. The springs which gush from their sides after running sixty or seventy miles, become streams from one to three hundred yards wide. These have many shoals where they spread wider, and are so shallow as to be generally fordable. In the intermediate spaces, the water is on an average from eight to ten feet deep. At many of these shoals the falls are sufficient with the aid of a small dam to impel the most weighty machinery. At some of them the falls are so great and abrupt as to admit twenty feet wheels upon the over-shot construction without any, or at most very short races: at others the ledges of rocks extending across the river form a natural dam quite sufficient for the obstruction of as much water as is required for working one or two mills. The artist has little to do but to erect his house and machinery. These places generally afford a sufficiency of durable materials for erecting the necessary buildings. They also frequently afford the rock out of which the mill stones are cut. Smaller streams, called creeks, take their rise at the foot of the hills: these are from ten to fifteen miles in length, and generally contain such a quantity of water as, with the advantages of the falls which

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and forms a confluence with Broad river at Pinckneyville. Tyger river runs through its southern portion, and forms a confluence with Broad river at its south-eastern extremity. Fairforest creek, which from its size seems entitled to the appellation of river, takes rise in Spartanburgh, and after running twenty-five or thirty miles nearly through the centre of Union, discharges itself into the north side of Tyger river.

they afford, is sufficient to give activity to labor-saving machines of the largest size.

Many of the branches that take rise from the springs at the foot of the hills, after running two or three miles, afford beautiful sites for the erection of similar works upon a smaller scale. Some of these are now improved for the purpose of cleaning cotton with the saw-gin, and a few of them have also a pair of mill-stones fitted up in the gin-house which, without manual labor, serve for grinding a sufficiency of grain for a distillery and for domestic consumption.

The common tides along the coasts of South Carolina rise from six to eight feet at neap tides, and from eight to ten feet at spring tides; they are however much influenced by wind; for a neap tide with a south-eastwardly wind is higher than a spring tide with a north-westwardly one. Along the coast the depth of sea-water is from two to five fathoms to a distance of some miles from the shore. In general the tides ascend our rivers as far as thirty or thirty-five miles in a direct line from the ocean. This however is to be understood only in those rivers whose streams are not impetuous; for in the Santee the tides do not flow more than fifteen miles in a direct line and the salts are so kept back by the column of fresh water, continually flowing down, that, except in times of great drought, they do not ascend further than two miles from the sea. When a drought prevails, they scarcely ever penetrate more than three or four miles in a direct line. The salts proceed further up Georgetown bay, and are sometimes injurious to agriculture fourteen miles or more from the sea. The Savannah river partakes also of the same influences, and nearly in the same extent with Santee river.

Few lakes are to be found in South Carolina: one however, situated in Barnwell district, presents a beautiful sheet of water near a mile in circumference. Large rivers of this State present us with several instances where their waters have broken through peninsulas and worn a short channel as wide and as deep as the circuitous one which they before pursued. When the mouths of these old channels are partly stopped up, and the streams in them become slow, they are denominated lakes. Of such is Lowder's lake on Peedee river, over which the surrounding lands project elevations of near one hundred feet.

Asbestos which is incombustible, though capable of being drawn into threads and formed into a resemblance of cloth, is found near the head waters of Lynche's creek.

Soap stones, steatites, rock chrystal, white flint, Fuller's earth, clays of various natures and of beautiful colors, potter's clay, isinglass, ochres, chalks, and marles, have all been found in different parts of the State.

A quarry of gray stone, resembling free stone, which works well and splits easily, has been discovered at Beaver creek. The foundations of some of the locks of the Santee canal were formed of this stone. Rocks suitable for mill-stones are common in the upper country. Good slate has been found near the sources of Lynche's creek. Some fine clay was brought to Charlestown from the Cherokee country about the year 1760; which, being sent to England by Doctor Garden, was returned in the form of a tea equipage equal to the finest imported from China, and was long used as such in his family.

Iron ore is very common in the upper country, particularly in the mountainous districts, and of so good a quality that it yields one-fourth of its weight in excellent iron.

In the Cherokee mountains lead ore has been found in great abundance, and so rich as to produce two thirds of its crude weight in pure lead.

Specimens of copper and of several other metals have been discovered, but no thorough investigation of them nor of the other hidden riches of the State has ever been made. It is the general opinion of the inhabitants that the true wealth of Carolina is to be derived from its surface by labor and industry.

There are doubtless valuable medicinal springs in the State. Some are rising into fame and begin to be frequented, but their component parts and real virtues have not been hitherto ascertained with satisfactory precision.

So much of South Carolina is level that cascades are very rare, especially in the low country. There cannot be recollected a single instance of an overshot mill within 100 miles of Charlestown, though one might be advantageously worked at each end of the Santee Canal. There are many such in the upper country, and a few beautiful natural water falls. One of these is the precipice across Reedy river at Greenville Court House. The perpendicular fall is thirty-six feet, and exceeds the whole breadth of the stream. In dry seasons the river is fordable on horseback, or at particular times may be safely walked over by stepping from one rock to another; but when the water rises but two or three feet, any attempt to pass over it is hazardous in the extreme. The impetuosity of the current is such, that a person crossing, either by wading or riding, would be almost certainly thrown off his balance, precipitated down the fall and dashed against opposite rocks.

From the Glassey, Table and Oolenoy mountains, streams of water, fifteen or twenty yards wide, tumble into the vallies below, and in the whole of their passage dash upon and foam over rocks.

Nothing in South Carolina is equal to the Catawba falls.

They are situated above Rocky mount. Hills confine the descending stream as it approaches to them. When it advances nearer it is further narrowed on both sides by high rocks piled up like walls. The Catawba river, from a width of 180 yards, is straitened into a channel about one-third of that extent, and from this confinement is forced down into the narrowest part of the river called the Gulph. Thus pent upon all sides but one, it rushes over large masses of stone, and is precipitated down the falls. Its troubled waters are dashed from rock to rock, and foam from one shore to another; nor do they abate of their impetuosity till after they have been precipitated over twenty falls to a depth very little short of 100 feet. Below Rocky mount the agitated waters, after being expanded into a channel of 318 yards width, begin to subside, but are not composed. A considerable time elapses before they regain their former tranquility.

The wildness of the steep and rugged rocks—the gloomy horrors of the cliffs—the water falls which are heard pouring down in different places of the precipice, with sounds various in proportion to their respective distances and descents—the hoarse hollow murmuring of the river running far below the summit of the rocks and of the adjacent surface of the earth, are objects well calculated to excite emotions of wonder and admiration in the mind of spectators. The scenery is sufficiently grand and curious to attract the visits of the most distant inhabitants of Carolina.

These falls greatly impede the water communication between the upper and lower country. To open it is the object of an incorporated company. In their speedy and complete success every citizen, and especially the Santee Canal Company, has a great and decisive interest. These falls give such a command of water as points out Rocky mount and the vicinity to be a most eligible site for labor-saving machinery. Merchant mills and machines for lessening the expense and labor of carrying on manufactures of every description, may there be cheaply kept in constant motion by a water power which might be extended to every purpose of utility or convenience. It is situated in the heart of a fertile and thickly settled country, abounding with provisions and raw materials for manufacture, where labor and provisions are comparatively cheap, and where there is every prospect of a growing vent for all useful commodities among rapidly increasing inhabitants. The situation of Grimkeville at Rocky mount is not only fascinating for its beauty, but eminently calculated for the enjoyment of health and transaction of business. Its summit is considerable higher than the top of lofty trees in the vicinity, and it commands a most extensive view of the

surrounding country. At its base a shad fishery might be carried on to great advantage and to any desirable extent either for domestic consumption or exportation.

From the head waters of the Catawba in the vicinity of Morgantown, a turnpike road or a canal might be formed to the head waters of both the Kanhaway and Tennessee; which three rivers head near each other. Either, when accomplished, would facilitate an intercourse between Charlestown and the States of Kentucky and Tennessee on easier and better terms than it can be carried on between these Western States and any other Atlantic port in the Union.

Carolina partakes so much of the nature of a West India climate that generally five or six and sometimes seven or eight months of the year pass without frost. It partakes so much of the climate of temperate cold countries that only three months of the year are always exempt from it. Frosts have been known as late as May and as early as September. Except extraordinary seasons, the months of November, December, January and February never pass without it. It sometimes terminates for the season with the month of February, and has been known to keep off as late as the 13th of November.* The period of vegetation comprehends in favorable years from seven to eight months. It commences in January or February and terminates in October or November; a term too short for ripening the most delicate fruits of southern latitudes. The sugar-cane, ginger, bread-fruit, pine-apple, banana and coffee trees, cannot stand the severity of a Carolina winter; though they grow well in summer. Gooseberries, currants and cherries cannot, or rather have not been made to grow to any purpose in the low country. Wild cherries are common in the woods; but of garden cherries few or none, with ordinary care, bear fruit of any consequence; though the trees grow very well. Figs, apricots, nectarines, apples, peaches, pears, olives and pomegranates, also almonds, piccan or Illinois nut, though exotics, have been naturalized in Carolina to good purpose and stand all seasons. Orange trees are uninjured in ordinary winters, but the frosts of such as are uncommonly severe occasionally destroy their stems. Most of them grow again from the roots with the return of the next warm season. These thrive best in the low country near the sea, and in the most southern parts of the State. Apples and peaches may and have been raised in small quantities and of

* After the hurricane of September, 1752, the season was so mild that all the fruit trees put out in blossom, and the fruit of some ripened. There was no frost until Christmas day, when rare-ripe apples of the second crop were gathered fit to eat. Something of the same kind, though not to an equal degree, took place after the hurricane of 1804. On the 12th of December of that year, ripe mulberries and ripe wild cherries were gathered in the vicinity of Charlestown. Apples and pears grew to a large size, but did not reach maturity.

a very good kind in and near Charlestown; but in general they can only be cultivated to advantage in the middle or western parts of the State. Of all the variety of fruit none thrives better than pears, pomegranates and water melons. The latter grow in Carolina to an enormous size, and are equal if not superior to any in the world.

Carolina cannot be called a good fruit country, yet some is furnished from the stores of nature in almost every month of the season when it is most wanted. Blackberries, strawberries, apricots, and raspberries, are ripe in April and May. Plums, huckleberries, early pears, apples, peaches, together with figs and nectarines, follow. Watermelons and muskmelons continue from June to October. Pomegranates, late peaches, pears, apples, grapes, and winter-plums, come in towards the termination of the hot weather. Haws, sloes, and fox-grapes, in October. Chinquepins, chesnuts, and persimons, still later. If to these refreshing and agreeable fruits we add the great variety of esculent vegetables, particularly asparagus, English peas, artichokes, Irish potatoes, green-corn, a variety of beans, squashes, pompions, okra, tomatoes, salads, beets, carrots, cabbages, and cucumbers, most of which are in season for a great part of the summer, we will find abundant reason of thankfulness for the ample provision made for the gratification and comfort of the heated thirsty inhabitants of our half West India climate.

Of the various articles of comfort which have been enumerated all except corn, potatoes, and caravansaras or Indian peas, are exotics introduced and naturalized by the care and attention of intelligent persons. Much has been done, but the field is open and invites to further experiments. Several of the finest countries of the world have a soil and climate like to that which we inhabit. As an independent people, we have access to all countries, and a mercantile intercourse with as many of them as we choose. The productions of the countries bordering on the Mediterranean sea, of Persia, India, China, Japan, of the greatest part of Africa, and of South America, might be successfully introduced into some parts of the State. Rice, indigo, and cotton, the three great sources of our wealth, all came from or grow in India; which is but one of the many countries resembling Carolina. Some commodities equally or even more valuable* may be in reserve to reward the investigations of the present inhabitants.

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* A more remarkable species of cotton, naturally of a crimson color in the pod, has been mentioned by different travelers as growing in Africa, and principally in the Eyeo country. Mr. Clarkson states that a small specimen of it was brought to Great Britain in the year 1786. He adds that "the value of this cotton would be great, both to the importer and the manufacturer of muslins; the former would immediately receive eight shillings for a pound of it, and the latter would gain considerably more by his ingenuity and taste.—*Bancroft on Colors, pp.* 68 *and* 69.

As this State enjoys many of the comforts of tropical countries, it is in like manner subject to some of the violent convulsions of nature which agitate these peculiar regions. From the fatal consequences of earthquakes, we are happily exempt. A momentary one that did no damage, is recollected by some of our old citizens as having taken place on the 19th of May, 1754. Another is remembered by many still living, as having taken place about 2 o'clock in the morning of April 4th, 1799.

Though earthquakes in Carolina are harmless, thunder storms are not always so. When they take place, especially if in the night, their grandeur exceeds description. The frequent balls of fire bursting from cloud to cloud; the forked flashes darting between the clouds and the earth, and from the one to the other alternately, illuminate the whole surrounding atmosphere and form a magnificent and striking scene. The solemn sound of distant thunder, followed by the vast explosion on the one hand, and the repercussive roar on the other, appear tremendously awful. The beasts of the field start from the thicket and gaze at the surrounding prospect with evident symptoms of terror and astonishment, and the winged tribes seek the shelter of the groves. Sometimes indeed these storms are of short duration, particularly when they come attended with brisk gales of wind; but when that is not the case, they often last four or five hours. While the clouds are gathering, the atmosphere, though before serene, is suddenly obscured. To the inhabitants accustomed to view such appearances, and to experience their salutary effects in cooling the air and earth, the thunder storm produces more pleasurable than alarming sensations; but to strangers the "peal on peal, crushed, horrible, convulsing earth and heaven," is exceedingly solemn and terrifying. As the flashes of lightning from the clouds commonly strike the highest objects, and the whole country is covered with woods, the fury of the storm for the most part falls upon the trees. Such storms sometimes occasion considerable damage particularly to the ships in the harbor; and sometimes they are attended with showers of hail which fall with such force as to beat down the corn in the fields, and to break glass windows. Our elder citizens inform us, that thunder storms were in the days of their youth much more frequent and more injurious than they have been for the last thirty or forty years. This is remarkably the case in Charlestown, and is probably in part owing to the multiplication of electrical rods. Dr. Hewat, who wrote about 1775, asserts that he had known in Charlestown, "five houses, two churches, and five ships struck with lightning during one thunder storm." Nothing comparable to this has occurred for many years past. It is nevertheless

true, that during the summer there are few nights in which lightning is not visible in some part of the horizon.*

South Carolina, by its proximity to the torrid zone, is exposed to the conflicts of the elements in a greater degree than the northern States. To the southward the atmosphere is continually rarefied by excessive heat; a colder atmosphere from the northward, has a constant tendency to rush to the point of greatest heat and restore the equilibrium. To this warfare of elements may be ascribed the destructive whirlwinds which sometimes lay waste particular parts of Carolina. One of these took place May 4th, 1761. It was seen between one and two o'clock P. M., coming from the southwest like a large column of smoke and vapor. When it had advanced to the vicinity of Charlestown, it was providentially opposed by another whirlwind from the northeast; the shock of their junction was so great as to alter the direction of the former, whereby a great part of the town was left without the range of its violence. It then passed down Ashley river with such rapidity and force, that in a few minutes it reached Rebellion road where a fleet of loaded vessels lay; five of these were overset and so suddenly sunk, that the people in their cabins had not time to come on deck. Several others would have shared the same fate had not their masts given way. All those over which the whirlwind passed were laid on their sides. While many of the inhabitants, unsuspicious of any danger, sat at dinner, they were alarmed with an uncommon sound like the contin-

* On Tuesday morning, 12th November, 1799, from a little after midnight until daylight, the firmament in Charlestown exhibited a singular but splendid phenomenon. Instead of a few solitary meteors sporting along the sky, which is not unfrequent, they appeared in countless numbers, darting incessantly in all directions. Some of them emitted a light so vivid that objects in a chamber not very dark were rendered visible. A similar phenomenon was observed at the same time at sea, about sixty or seventy leagues from the bar. The like was seen at the same period as far to the south as 29 degrees of north latitude and 71 degrees of longitude. Accounts from Nassau, in New Providence, mentioned the same appearance to have been noticed there on the same morning. During the appearance of this uncommon phenomenon, the weather was very calm; yet the fears of some timid persons were so excited by the coruscations of effulgent light darting in all directions, that they apprehended the day of judgment and conflagration of the world to be at hand.

On August 2d, 1806, about seven o'clock, several thick clouds were gradually gathered in Charlestown, through which for more than an hour there was a superbly grand appearance of lightning, but without thunder. About a quarter past eight o'clock a smart shower of rain came on, accompanied with some lightning and thunder. This in a short time cleared away, though the clouds still continued to hover from the southwest to the north-northwest; the moon, then in the fourth day of its last quarter, rose with great splendor, while the firmament to the eastward was studded with a number of brilliant stars. At half-past eight o'clock a very unusual phenomenon occurred: a lunar rainbow was very plainly to be seen. It had none of the brilliancy of the solar rainbow, but was of a dark mud color. The arc was completely formed, rising at the summit to about 40 degrees above the horizon. It continued perfect for about ten or twelve minutes, and then began to disappear, and in a few minutes vanished. These uncommon phenomena were accurately observed and noted at the time of their appearance by Dr. Tucker Harris.

ual roaring of distant thunder. Looking round for its cause they saw a tremendous cloud advancing rapidly towards them with a circular motion, and large branches of trees hurled about in its vortex. Its diameter appeared to be about 300 yards, and its height thirty degrees, while a thick vapor emitted from it ascended much higher. The quantity of materials which composed this impetuous column and its prodigious velocity, gave it such a surprising momentum as to plough Ashley river to the bottom, and to lay the channel bare. Floods of water fell on those parts over which it moved. As the wind ceased soon after the passage of the whirlwind, the branches and leaves of trees which had been hurried along with it began to fall, and for half an hour darkened the air in their descent. A thousand axemen, employed for a whole day in cutting down trees, could not have done as much execution as was done by this whirlwind in one minute. Young and pliant trees by yielding to the storm escaped its fury, but those which were more inflexible and firmly rooted were broken off and hurled away. Among such were some live oaks of nearly two feet diameter; of these, though probably weighing more than two tons, no remains could afterwards be found, except their roots which were never separated from the earth. The same tremendous column was seen at noon upwards of thirty miles southwest from Charlestown. In the vicinity of the latter it arrived twenty-five minutes after two P. M. In its rapid intermediate course, exceeding fifteen miles an hour, it made an avenue of great width, tearing up trees, houses, and everything that came in its way. By four o'clock the wind was fallen—the sun shone out—the sky was serene—and every thing appeared so quiet that a stranger just arriving could scarcely believe that so dreadful a scene had been recently exhibited, if so many melancholy proofs of its reality did not obtrude themselves to his astonished view.

Minor whirlwinds often proceed through the upper country, sometimes in a width of a half mile, tearing up the largest trees in their way or twisting and shivering them to pieces.

Storms of hail also take place whose effects have been destructive to different parts of the State. The hills on both sides of the Catawba river near Rocky Mount, suffered severely from one which occurred some years ago. The discharge of hail stones was so heavy and large that the pine trees were completely killed, and still exhibit a wild and awful spectacle. Fields of wheat and other grain were beaten to pieces and destroyed. In April, 1793, a similar storm swept through part of Orangeburg and Ninety-Six districts; and in 1797 one passed along the eastern side of Cooper river, lasting about half an hour, and depositing on the ground hail

stones three inches in circumference. The grain in the fields, and the vegetables in the gardens, were completely destroyed, and birds and poultry were killed.

The commencement of the year 1800 was uncommonly cold, and several snow-storms took place in the months of January and February; some of these covered the grounds of the lower country six inches, and those of the upper country two or three feet deep. During this time a remarkable sleet fell in a vein of ten or fifteen miles wide from Broad river towards the Savannah. The cold and the sleet produced many long and heavy icicles appendant on the trees. The icicles by their number and weight bent saplings to the ground; but the full grown trees which did not bend were broken off in all directions, and the ground for miles covered with their ruins. The woods in that part of the State still present a wild and haggard appearance.

When either floods of rain or of melted snow pour down the rivers of Carolina, the adjacent low lands and intervals are overflowed with freshets. As early as the year 1701 we are informed by Mr. Lawson, in his history of Carolina, of a great inundation which about that time had rushed down Santee river, rising perpendicularly thirty-six feet. In January, 1796, a similar one came down the same river. No bridge could withstand its fury. Trees and houses were borne down by its stream. A wooden bridge over Broad river, a few miles above Columbia, and another about seven hundred feet long, over the Congaree river at Granby, upwards of forty feet high above the common level of the river, and many of whose piers were fastened by iron bolts into solid rock at its bottom, were swept away. At Granby, the tobacco ware-house, together with one hundred and fifty hogsheads of tobacco, was destroyed. The Camden tobacco ware-house on the banks of the Wateree river, met the same fate. Dwelling houses, corn houses, cattle, horses and hogs, were carried down by the violence of the current; and vast beds of sand were fixed on fertile tracts of swamp land, to their irreparable injury. The collected waters of almost all the rivers in the upper country at length formed a junction at the confluence of the Wateree and Congaree rivers, and rushed on the country below with destructive velocity. They rose at the rate of three inches an hour, and continued to rise for some days. The current in a great degree swept directly down the swamp, in a width in some places more than five miles from the high pine lands on either side. Great quantities of provisons—thousands of bushels of Indian corn—and many hundred barrels of rice were destroyed. Some of the negro houses of the lower plantations on Santee were torn up and carried by the torrent en-

tirely out to sea. Rice plantations within a few miles of the ocean, and on the best pitch of tide, were overflowed for near a week; the water being from two to three feet above the rice field banks. The force of the freshet was so strong that for some days the ebbing of the tides was scarcely perceivable. This great flood poured itself into Hell Hole swamp, and from thence entered the different bays which communicate with the eastern branch of Cooper river, passing over the high portage ground which divides the Santee from Cooper river, to ascend which the Santee canal was undertaken. At the same time a similar flood swelled Savannah river, laying the town of Augusta, in Georgia, generally two feet under water, and damaging goods therein to a large amount. It tore away an extensive bridge, near eight hundred feet long, belonging to Wade Hampton, which had been thrown over that river from South Carolina, and carried destruction before it down to the town of Savannah. The height of this freshet was supposed to be, at Augusta, from thirty-five to forty feet above the common level of the river. At Granby and Camden, the height of the waters in the Congaree and Wateree rivers must have been nearly at the same elevation. Just above the confluence of North and South Santee, the water was twenty-one feet above the common level. The best lands in the State were materially injured by this enormous freshet. It brought loss and distress to many individuals, and the well-earned prospects of a year's industry were either swept away or injured beyond the possibility of recovery.

Towards the termination of the hot season, blowing weather is common and in some measure necessary to restore the equilibrium between the heated air of the South and the cold air of the North. The autumnal equinox seldom passes in the vicinity of the torrid zone without some conflict of the elements more or less dangerous. In the 138 years which have taken place since the settlement of Carolina, several minor storms* have passed over without exciting any permanent public attention. But four having done extensive mis-

*In a blank leaf of the church book of the Independent church is the following note: "Memorandum.—There was a former register kept belonging to the meeting-house and congregation, which by misfortune of the great hurricane that happened the 5th and 6th of September, 1713, was lost; when the house where the late Mr. William Livingston, deceased, then lived, and in whose possession it was, at White Point in Charlestown, in this province, was washed and carried away by the overflowing of the sea." Of this hurricane nothing more is known. Since writing the above, a very old manuscript, written by the venerable Thomas Lamboll, who was born soon after Charlestown began to be built, and died in 1775, has been put into the hands of the author by his daughter, Mrs. Mary Lamboll Thomas, from which are collected the following particulars of the above hurricane, which are unnoticed by all historians. "1713.—On September 5th came on the great hurricane, which was attended with such an inundation from the sea, and to such an unknown height that a great many lives were lost; all the vessels in Charlestown harbor, except one, were drove ashore. The new Look

chief, are particularly remembered, and have been called hurricanes; an appellation usually given to those convulsive storms in the West India Islands in which the fields of sugar canes are destroyed, and the canes torn up and hurried away in confusion. The first of these hurricanes was in 1700. The swelling sea rushed in upon Charlestown with amazing impetuosity, and obliged the inhabitants to fly for shelter to the second stories of their houses. Happily few lives were lost in town, but a large vessel called the Rising Sun, belonging to Glasgow, and commanded by James Gibson, which had come from Darien with a part of the unfortunate Scotch settlers, at the time of the storm rode at anchor off the bar. The hurricane drove this ship from her anchor and dashed her to pieces against the sand banks, and every person on board perished. Archibald Stobo, a Presbyterian clergyman, Lieutenant Graham, and several more belonging to the ship, being on shore, escaped the disaster. The men going next day in search of their unfortunate countrymen, found the corpses of the greatest part of them driven ashore on James's Island, where they spent a whole day in burying them.

Of the second, in 1728, very few particulars have been recorded. Newspapers, which are now so common, had then no existence in Carolina. During the summer of 1728 the weather was observed by the inhabitants of Charlestown to be uncommonly hot. A dreadful hurricane followed, occasioning an inundation which overflowed the town and the low lands, and did incredible damage to the fortifications, houses, wharves, shipping and corn-fields. The streets of Charlestown were covered with boats, boards, staves; and the inhabitants were obliged to take refuge in the higher stories of their dwelling-houses. Twenty-three ships were driven ashore, most of which were either greatly damaged or dashed to pieces. The Fox and Garland, men of war, stationed there for the protection of trade, were the only ships that rode out of the storm. This hurricane, though it leveled many thousand trees in the maritime parts,* was scarcely perceived an

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out on Sullivan's Island, of wood, built eight square and eighty feet high, blown down; all the front wall and mud parapet before Charlestown undermined and washed away, with the platform and gun-carriages, and other desolations sustained as never before happened to this town. To the northward of Charlestown the hurricane was more violent, but at Port Royal it was not much felt."

*One fact, preserved by tradition in a particular family, has reached us, which as an historical document fixing the date of this hurricane and pointing out the then situation of Charlestown, is worth mentioning. A considerable portion of that central, thickly-settled part of the city lying to the northward and eastward of the National Bank, was at that time an orchard, just beginning to bear nectarines, apricots, pears, and other choice fruit. The same day destroyed this orchard, the property of John Laurens, and gave birth to his son James. These cotempora-

hundred miles from the shore. The hurricane of 1752 excited the longest and greatest portion of public attention. The few surviving chroniclers who were witnesses of its devastation even now frequently take a mournful pleasure in reciting the particulars thereof to their listening grand-children and great-grand-children. In the months of June, July and August, 1752, the weather in Charlestown was warmer than any of the inhabitants, before or since, have ever experienced. The mercury in the shade often arose above ninety, and for nearly twenty successive days varied between that and 101. By such excessive heat the air becomes greatly rarefied, and a violent hurricane commonly follows and restores the balance in the atmosphere. In such a case the wind usually proceeds from the northeast. These storms indeed seldom happen except in seasons when there has been little thunder, when the weather has been long dry and hot. Accordingly, on the 15th of September, 1752, a dreadful hurricane took place. In the night before it was observed by the inhabitants of Charlestown that the wind at northeast began to blow hard and continued increasing in violence till next morning. Then the sky was suddenly overcast and it began to drizzle and rain. This northeast wind blew with so much violence as to stem the Gulf stream in its northern course and to throw it on the shores. About 9 o'clock A. M. the flood came rolling in

neous events, on the 3d of September, old style, were too interesting to be forgotten by those particularly concerned. When the circumstance of an orchard so near the centre of this city is compared with the present state of things, it cannot fail of exciting admiration at the vast increase of Charlestown in the short space of eighty years. The hurricanes of 1700, 1713, 1728, 1752, and 1804, were all in September, and between the 8th and 16th of that month. When allowance is made for the change of style, all of them appear to have taken place within eight days of each other in their respective years. Reducing the whole to the new style or present mode of computing time, the earliest was in 1804, on the 8th of September, and the latest in 1700, nominally on the 5th, but really on the 16th of the same month. The date of the hurricane of 1728, is by Dr. Hewat erroneously fixed in August. It is fixed as above, on the 3d of September, old style; that author assigned no date for the hurricance of 1700. It is fixed as above, on the 5th of September, old style, on the following ground: John Lawson, who wrote an account of Carolina one hundred years ago, states, that on the 28th of December, 1700, he set out from Charlestown for North Carolina. On the second day of his journey he fell in with a Scotchman living near Sewee bay, on an island then called Dixe's Island. The Scotchman treated his guest with oatmeal, and informed him, "That he had obtained the oatmeal, with several other effects, from the wreck of the Rising Sun, a Scotch ship which had been cast away near Charlestown bar on the 5th of the preceding September." Fixing these dates with precision is of importance; for when exactly ascertained, they not only tend to diminish the period of terror which in the season of hurricanes disturbs the minds of many in Charlestown, but furnish data from past experience for rational conjectures on the probable time of their taking place. The inhabitants of Sullivan's Island, and of the sea-coast, should be attentive to all great changes of the weather between the 1st and 16th of September, particularly after very hot summers, and especially when an uncommon roaring is heard from the sea. It appears that hurricanes have generally come earlier in the season. The two first, in 1700 and 1713, were on September 16th; that of 1728, was September 14th; that of 1752, September 15th; that of 1804, September 8th. It is therefore more probable that the next will be before than after the 8th of September.

with great impetuosity, and in a little time rose ten feet above high water mark at the highest tides. The streets were almost instantly covered with boats, boards, wrecks of houses and ships. Before 11 all the ships in the harbor were driven ashore; and sloops and schooners were dashing against the houses of Bay street. The stores on the several wharves from Roper's on the south and Wragg's on the north of East Bay street were all broken up and lodged in large heaps on the Governor's bridge and the yards or open ground in its vicinity.

When the gale came on there was a large ship at anchor at Sullivan's Island road. When it was over, that ship, no longer visible, was supposed to be foundered, but was shortly after found in Clouter's creek, about six miles north of Charlestown. During the gale she had drifted, with her anchors ahead, through the marsh opposite the city, called Shute's Folly, and also passed over another piece of marsh land three miles higher up, called Drum Island, without the loss of any of her crew, masts, or yards. After taking out two schooner loads of her cargo she was hove down at Hockbaw careening place. On examination it appeared that she had sustained no other damage than the loss of some of her sheathing plank, torn off by oyster shells. She was afterwards reloaded and safely arrived at London, after she had there been given over as lost.

Another vessel was driven with her anchors ahead from off White Point through the mouth of Vanderhorst's creek. In passing she carried away the southwest corner of the Baptist new church, and afterwards safely grounded on the west side of Meeting street. Her draft of water was from nine to ten feet.

A ship with a cargo of palatines had anchored in Ashley river a day or two before the gale. She, with her anchors, was driven into the marsh near to James Island where, by continual rolling the passengers were tumbled from side to side. About twenty of them, by bruises and other injuries, lost their lives. The Hornet sloop-of-war, with seven anchors ahead, drifted almost on shore near to the place where Gadsden's wharf now stands. Her bowsprit and foremast were cut away to prevent her foundering. She was the only vessel in the harbor that rode out the storm. All others were wrecked, damaged or driven on the wharves. The consternation which seized the inhabitants exceeds all description. Finding themselves in the midst of a tempestuous sea, and expecting the tide to flow till one o'clock, they retired at eleven to the upper stories of their houses, and contemplated a speedy termination of their lives. At this critical time providence

mercifully interposed and surprised them with a sudden and unexpected deliverance. Soon after eleven the wind shifted, in consequence of which the waters fell five feet in the space of ten minutes. By this happy change the Gulf stream, no longer stemmed by the violent blast, had freedom to regain its usual course, and the town was saved from eminent danger. Had the Gulf stream continued to flow in upon the town its destruction would have been inevitable. Almost all the tiled and slated houses were uncovered; several persons were hurt and some were drowned. The fortifications and wharves were almost entirely demolished—the provisions in the fields in the maritime parts were destroyed, and numbers of cattle and hogs perished in the waters. The pest-house, on Sullivan's Island, built of wood, with fourteen persons in it, was carried several miles up Cooper river, and nine of the fourteen were drowned.*

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* Several of these particulars are stated on the authority of Josiah Smith. This was the greatest and most destructive hurricane that has ever yet taken place in Carolina. The attention of the public being called to the subject of hurricanes by a very destructive one which took place in 1804, the Medical Society wishing to perpetuate a minute account of both, directed Dr. Prioleau to collect and particularly state the material facts relative to these important events, and to modernize the cotemporary statements of the hurricane of 1752, which by a change of names and circumstances were no longer intelligible. This service he performed very much to the satisfaction of the society; of it much use has been made in this historic statement. The result of his inquiries was recorded in the journal of the Society. That part of it which relates to the hurricane of 1752 is nearly as follows: "As the hurricane of the year 1752 far, very far exceeded, both in violence and devastation, the one of 1804, it may be both useful and interesting to collect its history, not only to enable us to make a comparison between them, but to apprise us of the danger and destruction to which we may be subjected from eastwardly storms. By the politeness of our President, Dr. James Moultrie, I have been favored with a very excellent and minute account of the hurricane of 1752, written by his worthy and learned father, Dr. John Moultrie; from which, together with the information communicated to me by my father, who was in the city at the time, and has a perfect recollection of the occurrence, we shall be enabled to compile an accurate account.

"As great changes have taken place in our city since that period by increased population, extension, change of property, and other circumstances, and as the above account refers to buildings which have long since been demolished, and to places the names of which have been altered, it will become necessary, in order to understand the extracts, to make a partial reference to the situation of the city at that time. In doing which, it is only necessary to observe, that the aspect of the city has been very much changed since the year 1752. The creeks which ran partly through the town have been obliterated, the low grounds have been filled, and even the most elevated spots must have received additional height from the rubbish which must necessarily accumulate in so populous a place.

The town was in a state of fortification. At White Point there was a considerable fort. A very strong brick wall, the curtain line, extended on the east side of East Bay street from Roper's wharf to the Governor's bridge, at each extremity of which there was a bastion. The wharves were few in number, the most northwardly of which is now owned by Captain John Blake. With the exception of the low stores on the wharves, the vendue store which was opposite Tradd street, and the old Guard House, where the Exchange now stands, there was not an house on the east side of East Bay street, nor was there any land at that time on which one could be erected. The water washed the curtain line from one end to the other, except only in those places where the wharves projected from it. On the night of 14th September, 1752, it was cloudy and boisterous. Friday, September 15th, was extremely stormy in the morning; and the wind, blowing from

In September, 1804, after an interval of fifty-two years, another hurricane took place. This proceeded from a junction of two simultaneous gales of wind on the coast. The one commenced at the Carribee Islands and proceeded northwestwardly along the coast of Florida, Georgia, and South Carolina. The other commenced at the northeast, and proceeded southwestwardly. These two gales after having separately done much mischief, met, and forming a junction in the latitude of Charlestown or Beaufort effected still greater devastation. Their conflict was attended with torrents of rains; it retarded the gulf stream, and of course accumulated so much water on the coast as to inundate a great part of the low lands of South Carolina and Georgia.

For several days before the storm commenced, an uncommon roaring of the sea was distinctly heard, especially by the residents on Sullivan's Island. The tides were remarkable for high floods and for ebbs [illegible] than usual.

At 10 o'clock P. M. on the 7th of September, 1804, a heavy

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the northeast, increased and continued with very little variation until eleven o'clock, A. M. Its violence was so great that no person could stand against it without support. About 9 o'clock A. M., when agreeably to the course of the tide it should have been low water, it was observed greatly to exceed the height of spring tides, and continued rising until the wind, which blew from the northeast and east-northeast, shifted to the south and southwest. The mountainous sea which then raged in the harbor began to fall, and the water returned in a very surprising manner. But for this change of wind, it is probable that the whole town would have been laid in ruins, as the tide had, according to the usual routine, two hours to flow, and a foot more of water would have inundated the highest spot. We cannot but shudder at the recital of the havoc it produced. Granville's bastion, situated at the southeast corner of East Bay street, on the very spot which is now occupied by Captain Messreon's house, was much shaken, the upper part of the wall beat in, the platform with the guns upon it floated partly over the wall. The upper part of the curtain line, a solid wall at least four feet thick, was beat in upon the bay, from Granville's bastion to Lloyd's wharf, now Geyer's; and from the spot where Cochran's wharf now is to Craven's bastion, which is now occupied by a house of Mr. Pritchard's, near the southeast corner of the Governor's bridge.

"The warehouses, scale-houses, and sheds upon the wharves, with all the goods in them, were swept away; the solid parts of the wharves much leveled. All the floating materials of the wharves, warehouses, and their contents—naval stores, boards, timber, shingles, staves, canoes, small craft, and barrels, were washed up under the curtain line from Lloyd's wharf, now Geyer's, to the place where Cochran's wharf now stands, and from thence to Craven's bastion, as the curtain line was beat in; the same confused mass was washed up against the houses on that part of the bay, to their great damage, and up into Queen street as far as Kinloch's court. All the vessels in the harbor, of every description, except the Hornet sloop-of-war, drove ashore. The small craft, except a few, were so torn to pieces, crushed and blended with the materials of the wharves and warehouses, as hardly to be discriminated.

"A pilot boat drove up on the pavement, close to Mr. T. Smith's door, the house which Mr. Gardner afterwards lived in, opposite to Keith's wharf, in the parlor of of which there was water to the depth of three feet.

"Dr. Caw's house, near to the corner of Lodge alley, was almost torn to pieces. The remains of two or three large petti-augers before it, the stables and chair-house next to it, and a great quantity of rafts of timber in the back yard of it, were all washed away.

"A wooden house of Mrs. Wragg's, corner of Bay and Amen streets, her green house, together with Mrs. Scott's (where Mr. Winstanley now lives,) out-buildings, were entirely demolished. Mr. Scott saved himself by swimming from his

gale of wind from the northeast commenced which continued during the night. It moderated about five o'clock in the morning of the 8th, but at seven it wore to the east and came on with redoubled force, and continued to increase until twelve o'clock, when it blew with tremendous violence, driving the spray of the sea across Charlestown Neck. The effect of this showed itself on the branches of tall pine trees fronting the east, blasting their leaves so that they appeared as if scorched with fire, and remained so for several weeks. In the afternoon it shifted round to the southeast, but did not in the least decrease until ten o'clock in the evening; it still, however, blew hard until one o'clock of the morning of the ninth, accompanied at intervals with heavy showers of rain.

The amount of property destroyed was immense; the whole of the wharves, from General Gadsden's on Cooper river, to to the extent of South Bay were greatly damaged. The heads and sides of most of them were shattered both by the violence of the waves and the beating of vessels against them. Very

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house. The works of Craven's bastion, from the platform upwards, were all beat in, the platform torn up and crowded into a corner of the bastion, the guns dismounted and washed out of their carriages, the great gate burst open into the street, and the heavy doors have never since been found.

"Captain Walker's sloop, loaded for Jamaica, drove through Colonel Pinckney's, now General Pinckney's stables, into Robert Raper's, now Ancrum's yard, where she was crushed to pieces, and left her mast through the balcony door.

"Captain Walker's pilot boat beat down the fine staircase leading to Colonel Pinckney's house, now the General's, and made a small breach in the southeast corner of the house. Mr. Brown's house, corner of Bay and William's wharf, was so much shattered, as to be rendered almost unfit to be inhabited.

"Colonel Pinckney, who lived in the large white house at the corner of Ellery street and French alley, abandoned it after there were several feet of water in it. He conveyed his family from thence to Mr. Seaman's, where Mr. Thomas Jones now lives, corner of Guignard and Charles streets, in a ship's yawl. All South Bay was in ruins, many wooden houses were wrecked to pieces and washed away, and brick houses reduced to a heap of rubbish. The piazza of the house of Samuel Peroneau, in Meeting street, where Dr. Irvine now lives, the chair-house, stables, and store-house, were all washed away. Mr. Fenwicke's coach-house, on the spot where Judge Heyward now lives, was beat down, and a new chariot broke to pieces and carried into King street, where Mr. Allston now lives. A new brick tenement, opposite to where Major Ladson now lives, was beat down by the falling of a stack of chimneys upon it, and washed away almost to the foundation. A brick house where Mr. Bedon lived, in Church street, a few doors from General Washington's, was, with the out-houses, reduced to a heap of rubbish. Mr. Bedon and family unfortunately remained too long in the house, for the whole family, consisting of twelve souls, perished in the water, except himself and a negro wench. He was driven to the upper end of Broad street, and was taken into the window of the house of Mr. Hext, who lived at the corner of Broad and Mazyck's street, where Mr. John Huger now lives. The negro wench was driven on Cumming's point, and saved herself by clinging to a tree. The bodies of Mrs. Bedon, of one of her children, and of a Dutch boy, were found in the parsonage pasture, where Mr. Ehrick now lives, in St. Philip's street. Mr. George Eveleigh's house, where Dr. Polony lately lived, was much shattered; the brick pillars before his house, together with the gate and pailing, were washed away. Mr. Tomplatt, who lived opposite, was drowned and washed into a stable on the lot where Colonel Morris lives, in Meeting street. Mr. Screven's brick tenements, with their out-buildings, corner of Church street and Stoll's alley, was beat down. The new Baptist church had both its ends beat in, the doors and windows broken to pieces. Many other houses in Church street, continued, were destroyed.

"A loaded brig came up the creek, which is now Water street, and was left

few vessels indeed escaped uninjured; many were totally lost, and more materially damaged.

At seven o'clock on the morning of the eighth, which was the period of low water, the tide was as high as it generally is at common high tides. It appeared that during the preceding ebb, little water had left the rivers. At twelve o'clock it had risen upwards of three feet higher than what is reckoned a high spring tide. This made a complete breach over the wharves, and drove some small vessels on them. On Gadsden's wharf several stores were washed or blown down, and their contents of rice and cotton much damaged. The new street made to continue East Bay to White Point was destroyed. Through it the water passed up Water street as far as Meeting street, in which it was some inches deep, opposite to the Presbyterian church.

On South Bay the whole of the bulwark made to withstand the encroachments of the tide was destroyed. The house of Mr. Wm. Veitch, built on made land, was washed away, and

in Church street, on the spot where Mr. Verree's house now stands. In general, all wooden fences and brick walls which were much exposed, and high stacks of chimnies were blown down. All wooden houses above one story in height, were either beat down or shattered. Many gable ends of houses blown out. All tiled and slated houses without exception, were more or less stripped of their covering; those on the bay, in a manner quite uncovered. When the front was stripped, the wind blowing under the roof, burst the back part out in bulk.

"All the southwest point of the town comprehened between Tradd and King streets was inundated. White Point and South Bay were under water; it was two feet deep in Meeting street, opposite Major Ladson's. The tide flowing up the creek, which has been filled up and is now Water street, poured its water into Church street, as far as the corner of Tradd street. It flowed up the creek to Meeting street, through said street, round St. Michael's church, into Broad street, as far down as the corner of Church street, where the South Carolina Bank now stands, where it met the water which flowed up from East Bay through Queen street into Church street.

"The south end of the Bay, from Captain Messroon's to Major Reid's, and the north end from Queen street to General Gadsden's, was completely inundated. The water was several feet in General Pinckney's house, and in other houses in that neighborhood. It flowed up the creek over which the Governor's bridge is thrown, by the old magazine as far as Meeting street, where Mr. John Splatt Cripps now lives. It was generally believed that one foot more of water would have covered the highest spot in Charlestown.

"Sullivan's Island was covered with water. Some people were hunting there: in all, fourteen souls. Of these only five escaped on part of the roof of the Pest House, which was driven ashore near Hobcaw Point.

"A great part of James Island was under water: many houses thereon were beat down, and some people drowned.

"The plantations on Keewah Island were completely overflowed. Mr. William Matthews, his wife, and about forty-seven souls, were miraculously saved on an old corn house which stood raised on posts from the ground.

"The plantations between Pon Pon and Santee river had their negro houses and many of their out-houses blown down.

"An incredible number of trees were blown out by the roots, and many of the finest pine trees which stood the gale, rendered unfit for timber, boards, &c., in consequence of the internal part of the tree being split, or of what the workmen call *heart-shaken*.

"The roads were blocked up by trees falling across them. The bridges were carried away, and as the canoes or boats were either crushed to pieces or driven ashore, all communication with the country was thereby cut off for some days. The whole of this devastation was effected in the short space of six hours."

a negro killed by the fall of its chimney. Most of the families in this street fled from their dwellings.

In the city several houses which were covered with slate and pantile were partly unroofed. Many trees and fences were blown down. At twelve o'clock on the 8th, which was the period of high water, the tide had risen three feet two inches higher than what is called a high spring tide. As usual it began to decrease, but at six o'clock, the time of low water, it had fallen only two feet. As so little water had been carried out by the ebb, and a new flood was coming in, it was apprehended that this tide would be much higher than the former. But owing to the shifting of the wind more to the southward, the water continued to fall during the last four hours of what in the common course of things would have been a flood tide. So that at one o'clock A. M. on the ninth, the period of high water, it was not as high as it had been the preceding evening at the period of low water. On Sullivan's Island the situation of several hundreds who had resorted thither for the benefit of the sea air, and to avoid the heat of the city, was distressing beyond description. The western part of the island was completely under water to the depth of several feet. Upwards of twenty houses were either blown down, or their foundations undermined by the sea and completely washed away. The inhabitants of these houses escaped by resorting to the Lazaretto barracks and other parts of the island not so immediately exposed. Many houses were occupied by women and children alone who could not assist themselves and who, but for the prompt aid of several gentlemen, must inevitably have perished. The eastern part of the island was not completely covered. The inhabitants of that end had free communication with each other, walking dry shod along the narrow ridge of sand which runs longitudinally through the island. It is the opinion of several who witnessed the scene that in case the tide had continued to rise for half an hour longer, every house on the island must have fallen, and the destruction of every person thereon would have been almost inevitable. Of many families, part were in Charlestown and part on Sullivan's Island. Between these two places, six miles apart, there was no possibility of any communication. The residents on the island and in the city were reciprocally anxious for each other. Personal safety for the present moment was no security for the next. The inhabitants of the island could not tell whether they or their friends in the city fared worst. The latter feared that the former were overwhelmed and lost. In this painful state of suspense both remained for several hours, not knowing what was the fate of their friends, and equally uncertain what was to be their own.

Fort Johnson was so injured as not to admit the mounting of a single cannon. The breast-work, and pallisadoes of Fort Pinckney were washed away.

The gale was scarcely felt northwardly beyond Wilmington, North Carolina. It commenced at Georgetown on the 8th of September, between 3 and 4 o'clock A. M.; the wind was northeast, and blew with increasing violence until midnight. It then changed to southeast, and abated but little of its fury before the evening of the 9th. The rain descended in torrents. The devastation increased as the storm proceeded southwardly. At Savannah the gale began on Saturday, September 8th, and lasted seventeen hours. The water rose to eight or ten feet above the level of the common spring tides. Houses and stores were blown down by the wind and undermined by the water. Fences and trees were prostrated, ships and vessels were stranded and left high and dry on the wharves. Many negroes and others were drowned in consequence of the low islands on the coast being deeply overflowed. On Cockspur Island Fort Green was leveled, all the buildings destroyed, and thirteen lives lost. Muskets were scattered all over the island. Cases of canister shot were carried from one hundred to two hundred feet, and a bar of lead of 300 pounds was likewise removed to a considerable distance. A cannon weighing 4,800 pounds is said to have been carried thirty or forty feet from its position. Broughton Island was covered with water, and upwards of seventy negroes, the property of William Brailsford, were drowned by the oversetting of a boat in which they attempted to escape from the island to the main. The barn on the island being raised on made high land stood the storm, and in it the negroes would have been safe. At St. Simon's Island great damage was done. The crops were generally covered with water, and several negroes were drowned. The like happened on St. Catherines, and on the other islands on the coast. At Sunbury the bluff was reduced to a plane, and almost every chimney leveled to the ground.

The rice swamps and low lands within the reach of the tides were generally overflowed. The crops of rice and provisions were greatly injured, and in some places totally destroyed or washed away. The fields of cotton along the seashore which previously promised an abundant crop, were blasted and nearly destroyed by the violence of the wind and the spray of the sea.

Destructive scenes similar to those which have been just described seldom occur; but something of an opposite nature takes place almost every year. There is an uncommon and frequent multiplication of fish under particular circumstances

which deserves to be noticed in the natural history of South Carolina. In every plantation great care is taken in making dams to preserve water for overflowing the rice fields in summer; without which they will yield no crops. Soon after these ponds are made, the planters find them stocked with a variety of fishes. In what manner they breed or whence they come has been a subject of inquiry. Some think that their spawn is exhaled from the large lakes of fresh water in the continent, and being brought in thunder clouds, falls with the drops of rain into these reservoirs of water. Others imagine that it must have remained every where among the sand since the sea left these maritime parts of the continent. Others are of opinion that young fish are brought by water fowls from one pond to another and dropt therein, by which means the new made pools receive a plentiful supply. Of these different solutions the first is most satisfactory. But whatever is the cause the effect is visible and notorious all over the country. When the ponds are stocked with fishes, it becomes an agreeable and common amusement to catch them by angling or hawling a seine through the pool.

Of the original animale in South Carolina, the following remain:

Bear, panther, wild cat, wolf, beaver, grey fox, red deer, otter, wild rat, mouse, black squirrel, gray squirrel, flying squirrel, ground squirrel, rabbit, pole cat, mole, mink, opossum, raccoon, lizard, scorpion, toad, bull frog, frog, green frog.

The following have been imported and domesticated:

The cow, horse, ass, hog, sheep, goat, dog, cat.

Of the birds of Carolina the following are the principal:

Bald eagle, fishing hawk, pigeon hawk, gray hawk, swallow tailed hawk, night hawk, turkey buzzard, carrion crow, large owl, screech owl, carolina cuckoo, perroquet, blue jay, purple jack daw, red winged starling or black bird, rice bird, large white bellied woodpecker, gold winged woodpecker, red bellied woodpecker, hairy woodpecker, yellow bellied woodpecker, small spotted woodpecker, nut-hatch great and small, sanguillah, wild pigeon, turtle dove, ground dove, may bird, robin, thrush, carolina bullfinch, large swamp sparrow, little sparrow, snow bird, mocking bird, blue grosbeak, purple finch, painted finch or nonpareil, blue linnet, chatterer, blue bird, crested fly catcher, black cap fly catcher, swamp red bird, highland red bird, summer red bird, crested tit mouse, yellow tit mouse, pine creeper, yellow throated creeper, humming bird, kingfisher, chattering plover or killdeer, whistling plover, hooping crane, blue heron, little white heron, crested bittern, cormorant, white curlew, brown curlew, oyster catcher, canada goose, small white brant goose, great gray brant goose, duck and

mallard, canvas back duck found here every spring, gannet, large black duck, bull neck duck, round crested duck, summer duck, little brown duck, blue winged teal, green winged teal, white faced teal, black cormorant, flamingo, water pelican, wild turkey, pheasant or mountain partridge, small partridge or quail, wren, swallow, martin whip-poor-will or goat sucker, snipe, woodcock, marsh hen, indian pullet.

Of these the geese, many species of ducks, the wild pigeon, the snow bird and some others are birds of passage, some of them coming from northern and others from southern latitudes. Swallows appear commonly in the second week of March, and disappear the beginning of August. Martins come about the middle of April, and depart about the end of October or beginning of November. Small birds called king birds, show themselves about the first week in April, and retire the first week in September.

Many species of serpents, some of which are of deadly nature, are natural to this State, among which are: The rattle snake, water rattle snake, small rattle snake, water viper, black viper, copper belly snake, bluish green snake, hog nose snake, wampum snake, horn snake, thunder snake, black snake, little brown head snake, ribbon snake, chain snake, mogason water snake, coach whip snake, corn snake, green snake, glass snake, bull snake.

Among our insects are: The earth worm, grub worm, snail, house bug, flea, wood worm, forty legs, wood louse, cicada, mantis or camel cricket, cockroach, cricket, beetle, fire fly, glow worm, butterfly, moth, ant, fig eater, humble bee, ground bee or yellow jacket, wasp, hornet, fly, musqueto, sand fly, spider, tick, potatoe louse.

Alligators are in abundance in our brackish and fresh tide waters. They grow to the length of twelve or fourteen feet, and are extremely destructive to fish and other animals; they are said sometimes to attack men. If so it is very rare and under very particular circumstances. In general they are more sluggish and cunning, than active and courageous. But they conceal themselves in or near the water and seize calves, hogs and colts in the act of drinking or eating, drag them under the stream and devour them piece meal.

The fresh water fish are: Sturgeon, pike, trout, bream, roach, or silver fish, mud fish, pearch, sucking fish or carp, herring,* cat fish, gar fish, rock fish, eel; and of the shell fish kind, the soft shelled turtle, terrebin, cray fish.

* These fish, in their passage from Europe to the southwestern parts of the Atlantic, and in their return back to the great fisheries in the Northern and German seas, seldom fail to show themselves almost every March in considerable numbers in this State, particularly in Goose creek, Pedee, and Edisto rivers.

The salt water fish are:—Shark, porpus, drum, bass, sailors choice, cavalli, snapper, shad,* sheep head, crocus, whiting, porgy, black fish, soles, angel fish, mullet, herring, skip jack, yellow tail, alewife.

And the shell fish are some kinds of large and small sea turtle, oysters, crab, shrimps, clams and muscles.

So various is the climate of South Carolina that the plants of Canada may be found on its mountains, and the more hardy tropical fruits on its south-eastern extremity. Since the revolution, its botanic riches have been examined and many specimens transported to the old world by six European botanists: Michaux and son, Beauvois, I. Fraser and son, and John Lyon. Among its numerous vegetable productions, the following, in addition to what have been introduced in preceding chapters, deserve particular notice:

Trees.—Ash, fraxinus. Its wood is used in making ploughs, wagons and carts, spokes of wheels, tool handles, and dairy utensils; and the bark in making baskets.

Birch, betula alba, is used for baskets and hoop-poles.

Beech, fagus sylvatica, is made into sundry articles of furniture, and is split into thin scales for band-boxes. It also makes stocks for planes.

Black cherry, cerasus virginiana—furniture is made of its wood. A decoction of the bark is useful in dyspepsia, consumptions, intermittent fevers. Its gum is nearly equal to gum arabic; its fruit, by infusion in brandy, is a rich cordial.

Black mulberry, morus nigra—its wood makes furniture, and the fruit is pleasant and wholesome.

Cypress tree, cupressus disticha, is the largest tree growing in the State, being sometimes thirty feet in circumference. Its wood is very durable, and yet easy to work. Large canoes, requiring six or eight oarsmen, are sometimes made from a single tree. They are sufficiently numerous in some single swamps to afford materials for building every house in a large town. They afford plank and timber for ships, houses and various other purposes; also boards for pannel work, shingles for covering houses, tubs, churns and other dairy utensils.

Red cedar, juniperus virginiana, makes durable furniture, posts and coffins. On the plantation of Thomas Drayton, in St. Andrews, an inscription on wood of this species in 1706, indicates the grave of Stephen Fox. There is no tombstone in Charlestown equally old on which time has made so little impression.

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* These fish in the month of February run up the fresh water rivers, particularly the Savannah, the Santee and its various heads, and in such numbers, that in addition to a plentiful supply for domestic use, many hundreds of barrels of them might be every year caught and salted for exportation.

Chestnut, castanea vesca, a very durable wood. Many of the oldest houses in London are built of it. It is good for tubs or vats for liquor, and never shrinks after being once seasoned. It makes fence-rails, and answers for several purposes of husbandry. The fruit is used as food.

Chinquepin, castanea pumela. Its fruit makes an agreeable article of light food. Posts made of the tree are very durable.

Candleberry-myrtle, myrica cerifera, affords wax for candles. A decoction of the bark is good for dropsies—of the leaves for diarrhœas—of the root for restraining uterine hæmorrhages.

Dogwood, cornus florida. The bark is a good substitute for Peruvian bark in the cure of fevers and mortifications.

Elder, sambucus canadensis. A decoction of the leaves has been found useful in dropsies—of the flowers in erysipelas, and other cutaneous diseases.

Elm, ulmus americana and alata, keeps well in water—is useful for mill-wheels, water-pipes, and for the carved works of architecture. It also yields materials for chair bottoms. The bark of one species of it can be made into ropes. The inner bark of another, the slippery-bark elm, ulmus pubescens, is commonly and with advantage applied to fresh wounds. An infusion of it is an useful mucilaginous drink in bowel complaints. Water in which it has been macerated, applied cold, acquires increased efficacy in cases of burns.

Several kinds of holly: the ilex cassena, is a most powerful diuretic.

Hickory nut, juglans alba. The nuts of this tree are pleasant food. Its wood makes excellent fuel. When small, it answers very well for hoop-poles. The inner bark imparts either an olive or yellow color.

Linden tree, tilia americana. The inner bark macerated in water is a good application to burns.

Locust tree, robinia, pseudo acacia, is a beautiful tree, and makes excellent fuel, timber, posts for fences, and is much used for trundles by ship-wrights. It is of quick growth, and cherishes the grass beneath its shade.

Spring plum, prunus chicasa—reputed unwholesome, but only accidentally so from swallowing the skin and stones—the juice is cooling and wholesome.

Winter plum, prunus hiemalis, affords an excellent preserve, and a rich cordial.

Chamærops palmetto. Palmetto tree grows only on lands adjacent to the sea. It is much used for facing, wharves and other works under water, as it is not at all injured by worms. It affords excellent materials for the construction of forts; for cannon balls soon loose all their force in its spongy substance.

They penetrate but a little, make no extended fractures, nor do they detach any dangerous splinters. The top of the tree yields a substance resembling cabbage, which may be used as such. The leaves of the chamærops pumila make durable hats.

There are more than twenty kinds of oak. Their acorns are useful as mast for hogs, and their galls as strong astringents. The wood of all is used for fuel, and of some for posts, shingles, staves, and heading for barrels. Pot-ash is obtained from their ashes, which when united with the wax of the candleberry-myrtle makes soap.

Live oak, quercus virens, is a very heavy wood which cannot be split. It yields the best of timber for ships, and for various kinds of machinery.

Quercus alba, white oak. The wood of this tree is split into thin laminæ for the purpose of making baskets, hoops, whip handles, &c.

Red oak, quercus rubra. A decoction of the bark is useful in diarrhœas and gangrene—the bark itself in tanning leather.

Great black mountain oak, quercus tinctoria. Its bark is used for dying black.

Persimon, diospyrus virginiana, is one of the strongest vegetable astringents, and much used in various cases where medicines of that class are indicated. By fermentation an agreeable beverage may be made from it. It also yields by distillation something like brandy. The younger trees may be used as stocks for engrafting.

Plane, platanus occidentalis. Sycamore tree.

Flowering poplar or tulip tree, liriodendron tulipifera, are both very beautiful. The bark of the latter is used for the cure of intermittent fevers, and in cases of bad digestion and debility—by many it is deemed nearly equal to Peruvian bark, and is much used by farriers.

Acer rubrum, red maple—the bark contains much galic acid, and is used with copperas for giving a permanent black color. Furniture and gun stocks are made from its wood.

Sugar maple, acer saccharinum—each tree yields in the proper season about five pounds of good sugar.

Sugar tree, a nondescript species of acer—yields sugar of a superior quality, and more in quantity than the sugar maple

Papaw, annona trilaba—ropes are made from the fibres of its inner bark. Its fruit affords a delightful repast.

Magnolia glauca—the bark is an agreeable bitter, used frequently and successfully in intermittents, and other diseases requiring tonic aromatic bitters.

Pine tree, pitch pine, pinus tæda, produces pitch, tar, turpentine—and the heart of it when dry becomes lightwood,

which makes lasting posts. There is a species of pine in Carolina, as yet undescribed, growing on the summits of high mountains, which yields a balsam much famed [illegible]h as a dressing to wounds and for relieving internal diseases.

Yellow pine, pinus palustris—of it are made planks, house-frames, spars, oars, boats, masts of vessels, ship-timber and lumber in all its various forms. Other pine trees yield fence rails, posts, shingles, staves, and heading for barrels.* All of them make excellent fuel.

MEDICINAL VEGETABLES.

Acorus calamus, sweet calamus, is a useful bitter and an excellent carminative and stomachic.

Amorpha fruticosa, wild indigo, is a strong styptic, and restrains excessive discharges of blood. Several vegetables pass under the name of snake-root. The following are the most useful, and are stimulant, bitter, sudorific and antispasmodic: 1. Virginia aristolochia serpentaria. 2. Seneka, polygala, senega. 3. Heart asarum, arifolium; and 4, button-snake-root, agave virginica. The three first are used in febrile diseases, and with the aid of the lancet, blisters, and salts, are equal to the cure of most of the common inflammatory fevers. The last has been found a powerful auxiliary in cases of tetanas and other spasmodic complaints; and a tincture of the root is also found most useful in cases of flatulent cholic.

Asclepias decumbens, pleurisy root, is much used by the planters in the disease from which it is named—it is a very

* Pines are the most valuable trees which grow in Carolina. Judging of their ages by their rings, some of them have been cotemporary with the French, Spanish, and English settlements on the coast, and have flourished equally under the democracy of Indians, and the proprietary, royal, and representative governments of white men. The resources of Carolina in lumber may be estimated from the following statements: There are within its limits two hundred thousand acres; each of which, on an average, has growing on it fifty pine trees, and every one of these, on an average, when brought in a marketable form to the sea ports, would sell for ten dollars. If to these are added the cypress and cedar trees, the oaks, ashes, poplars, maples, beeches, magnolias, palmettoes, and other common trees in Carolina, which are used in furniture, building, as ship timber, and in various forms by different artists, the sylvan riches of the State will be found to exceed all calculation. So great is the eagerness to plant cotton, that forests containing immense quantities of useful wood are yearly cut down and burnt without any other advantage than what is derived from the fertilizing quality of their ashes. This small residue of what might have been made ten times more valuable, is not improved by being converted into pot-ash. Such are the temptations resulting from the high value of the new staple, cotton, that to extend its culture, other sources of wealth to an immense amount are annually sacrificed. In almost every case land which, by being cleared of wood, is fitted for immediate planting, sells for more than the same when fully timbered. There are about 30,000 cords of wood consumed annually in Charlestown; and much more cut down, burnt, and destroyed in the country. Notwithstanding all this waste, the day is far distant when Carolina, stript of its trees, will resemble the south of Europe, and some of the most populous settlements in the northern States, so far as to present an unshaded surface to the direct action of the sun. Great havoc for some time past has been made among the pine trees by insects which, by boring into their substance, destroy them.

useful sudorific after proper evacuations; and, combined with them, seldom fails of effecting a cure.

Cassia marylandica, wild senna, not inferior to the senna of the shops.

Convallaria polygonatum, Solomon's seal—an excellent remedy for the scald head, and cutaneous eruptions.

Chironia angularis, lesser centaurs, is an excellent tonic and bitter in the low state of fevers when the body is prepared for medicines of that class.

Eupatorium perfoliatum, hemp agrimony. Thoroughwort is an emetic sudorific and tonic medicine, and frequently removes diseases of the skin.

Eupatorium pilosum, wild hoarhound, is good against fevers and old coughs arising from debility. The tame possesses the same virtues, but in an inferior degree.

Oxalis acetosella, woodsorrel, with which the woods abound, makes with milk a grateful whey, cooling in fevers—and from it may be prepared an essential salt like that of lemons, for any purpose requiring a vegetable acid.

Puccoon root, sanguinaria canadensis, is a deobstruent, and excellent in jaundice, old coughs, and bilious habits.

Pyrola umbellata, winter green—useful in nephritic cases.

Spiercea trifoliata, drop wort, commonly called Bowmen's root, or Indian physic. The bark of the root is tonic and emetic.

Zanthoryza, apiifolia, parsley leaved yellow root. A pleasing bitter, not inferior to columbo.

Spigelia marylandica, pink-root. The experience of many years has established the efficacy of a decoction of the roots of this elegant plant as a safe and powerful vermifuge. Dr. Barton is of opinion that it is also an excellent remedy in some febrile diseases of children, particularly in that species of remittent which often paves the way to dropsy of the brain.

Ceanothus Americanus, red root—the bark of the root is a very strong astringent, and is much used in diarrhœas.

May apple, wild lemon, podophyllum peltatum. The root of this plant affords a certain and salutary cathartic. Dr. Barton prefers it to jalap, because it is not so irritating and may be procured fresh and genuine in almost every part of the United States.

Prickly ash, aralia, spinosa—a watery infusion of the bark of the root is a certain emetic, and proves frequently cathartic. Its use is common in checking the progress of intermittents.

Gentiana or gentian—several species are to be found in Carolina. Their roots are highly but agreeably bitter, and are employed in making bitters and in cases of dyspepsia.

Laurus, sassafras—an infusion of the dried flowers is pre-

ferred by many to tea, and the bark of the root is used as an external application in gangrene.

Poke root weed, phytolacca decandra. The tender plant is an excellent substitute for spinach. A tincture of the berries is employed in chronic rheumatisms, and a decoction of the root by farriers in cleaning fistulous ulcers.

Sumach, rhus glabrum. An infusion of the berries makes a drink cooling and acidulous, and proves gently cathartic.

Michella repens, partridge berry. A decoction of this plant is esteemed a good emetic, and has gained a very general use.

Diuretic flagg, iris virginica. This plant possesses considerable diuretic powers, a decoction of the root in the hands of several planters has performed cures in dropsical cases.

Bucks eye, poor man's soap—esculus pavia. The root of this plant is employed in washing woolens, and from the fruit good starch may be plentifully obtained. The fruit powdered and thrown into stagnant water, has the effect of intoxicating the fish. They rise to the suface and are readily taken by the hand.

VEGETABLES REMARKABLE FOR THEIR BEAUTY, FRAGRANCE, OR CURIOUS STRUCTURE.

The mantling vines of the trumpet flower, yellow jasmines, convolvolus, ipomea, glycine or Carolina kidney bean tree. The fragrant bay trees, the delicate mellifluous smelling azalea, the beautiful and sweet honeysuckle, the cheerful clematis or traveler's joy, the shewy hibiscus, the elegant fringe and snowdrop trees, the air-perfuming sweet scented shrubs, the rich and gay variety of wild asters and dwarf sunflowers, with the wood-enlivening phlox, the iris, the curious water lily, the philadelphus inodorus, the andromeda, the kalmia, the storax tree, the rhododendron, the spiræa, the viburnum with the humble but beautiful and sweet mitchella repens, the wild strawberries, the blackberry bush, and the huckleberry, the wild rose, the bartsia coccinea, wild lilies, vanilla or Indian tobacco, asclepias of many sorts, wood anemones, the utricularia ceratophylla or bladder snout. Sarracenia, dionea muscipula, and many others which either display their beauties to every traveler, or in more retired situations are waiting to reward the curiosity and industry of the student of nature.

The woods furnish four native kinds of grape: the fox grape, summer, winter and muscadine grape; their luxuriant vines and sweet smelling blossoms contribute greatly to the pleasantness of the country at an early season: their fruit is moderately grateful, and they furnish excellent natural stocks for engrafting imported grapes on. The cactus opuntia, or Indian fig, is also a native of Carolina. Its growth is curious;

its fruit when thoroughly ripe agreeable: it furnishes also a good but not durable scarlet dye; but it is likely to become an object of importance as furnishing food for the cochineal insect which may be found in vast numbers on its leaves in the months of April and May.

FOREIGN TREES AND OTHER VEGETABLES NATURALIZED.

The melia azedarach, or **pride of India,** introduced by Thomas Lamboll. It is of very quick growth: the wood makes furniture; the berries are eaten by horses and birds; and the roots are a powerful vermifuge.

The stillingia sebifera, or tallow tree, was introduced from the East Indies by Henry Laurens. Is a very beautiful tree, and perfectly free from insects. Its berries are said to yield in China an oil from which candles are made. They have not hitherto answered for that purpose in Carolina. Their leaves are green in mild winters ten or eleven months in the year.

The weeping willow, salix babylonica. The pliable bark and branches of this may be woven into baskets. Its whole appearance connected with its situation near water, disposes the mind to pensive contemplation.

Lombardy poplar. Pupulus dilitata.

Sterculia platanifolia. Introduced by Andrew Michaux, and propagated by General Pinckney.

Palma Christi, or castor oil tree, is easily propagated, grows in abundance, and yields from 100 to 150 gallons of oil to the acre. Mr. Rudulph of Camden has planted fifty or sixty acres of it; from its berries he has obtained by expression large quantities of cold drawn oil, which ' equal doses opens the bowels as effectually as castor oil imported from the West Indies.

Sesamun indicum, bennè oil nut. The seeds of this plant furnish an excellent oil for salads, and every purpose for which olive oil is used; the grain parched makes a pleasant, light food, and may be prepared as a substitute for chocolate, and an infusion of the leaves in water produces a gelatinous drink highly recommended in bowel complaints.

The popy, papaver somniferum, has been successfully cultivated near Charlestown; and good opium, equal to any imported, has been prepared from it, by Catharine Henry Laurens Ramsay. If the present enormous price of that drug, which exceeds its weight in silver, continues, the preparation of opium will be an object worthy of attention. Carolina is indebted to the East Indies for its rice, indigo and cotton. To these may be added, and originally from the same country, opium, which may be cultivated to any extent that is requisite.

Hops, humulus lupulus, grow plentifully and require little

care. A growing fondness for beer may render a crop of this nearly as profitable as cotton, especially if the price and European demand for this article should, as many expect, be considerably diminished. As a further recommendation of hops, it has been found by late experiments to be in several cases and some constitutions, a more unexceptionable anodyne than laudanum; while at the same time infusions of it give tone to a debilitated stomach.

The common and despised datura stramonium, or Jamestown weed, is a most powerful medicine in epilepsy and some of the most obstinate complaints to which human nature is liable; prepared in the form of an ointment, it has an anodyne effect when it is applied to pains on or near the surface of the body; an application of the leaves frequently produces the same result.

ORNAMENTAL SHRUBS.

The gardenia florida or cane jasmine, the virburnumtinus, the rosa ferox, sometimes called rosa multiflora, more commonly known by the name of the nondescript, the rosa sinensis, perpetual rose—rosa moschata, musk rose—the rosa muscosa, moss rose, and many other beautiful and formerly rare kinds of roses. The olea fragrans, the hydrangea hortensis, double and single oleanders, altheas, cultivated myrtles of various descriptions, english jasmines and honeysuckles, several kinds of elegant mimosas, an abundance of hyacinths, narcissuses, daffodils, tonquils, ixias, ranunculuses, anemones, with a profusion of annuals of the most beautiful kind. Of fruit, sweet and sour oranges are raised, and, with some additional care, citrons, lemons and limes, almonds and chesnuts, figs and pomegranates, red and yellow raspberries and grapes, but not in profusion.

VEGETABLES USED AS FOOD.

Okra, melons, pompions, and squashes in many varieties, cucumbers, tanniers, irish and sweet potatoes, groundnuts used as food as a substitute for cocoa, and as a source of oil for domestic purposes.

Indian potatoe, suckahoe truffles, lycoperdon tuber is found in great abundance in old fields one or two feet beneath the surface of the earth, attached to the decayed roots of the hickory. This subterranean production afforded the indians wholesome bread.

The country abounds also in natural grasses of which the crab grass is undoubtedly the most valuable. Canes make angling rods, and reeds for weavers, and are excellent food for cattle. The common salt marsh yields manure and also provender for horses, for whose use hundreds of bundles of it are

almost daily sold in Charlestown market, at an early period of the spring and through the summer. It is a wholesome auxiliary to green oats and crab grass.

Long moss, tillandsia usneoides—this curious production marks the boundary between the upper and lower country. In the first, though most wanted, as the winters are more severe, it does not grow naturally, and all endeavors to propagate it have been unsuccessful. In the latter it grows profusely as an appendage to trees, and gives to them the venerable appearance of long pendulous gray beards. In hard winters it is greedily eaten by cattle, and serves for food till the grass springs; when properly prepared it is used as a substitute for hair in stuffing mattrasses, it is not lasting, but in other respects answers very well. With the exception of Doctor Garden, no Carolinian is recollected as having studied botany scientifically or otherwise than for horticultural purposes prior to the revolution, but since that event, this delightful science has excited attention, which though daily increasing, is far short of what it deserves.* At the head of its present votaries are Stephen Elliott of Beaufort, Henry Middleton, General Pinckney, and Dr. MacBride of St. Stephens; the latter of whom prosecutes this study with ardor and success in every relation, but most particularly as connected with the practice of physic. It has also been successfully cultivated by Mrs. (General) Pinckney, who has formed an extensive hortus siccus, or collection, of dried specimens of the botanic riches of Carolina. Miss Maria Drayton of Drayton Hall, and Miss Martha Henry Laurens Ramsay of Charlestown, are entitled to a distinguished place among its admirers and students.

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* There are many medical plants, the virtues of which have not been ascertained, nor can they properly be till they are made the subject of repeated experiments. To the candidates for medical degrees it is submitted whether any subjects for inaugural dissertations can have equal charms, or excite an equal interest, as experimental investigations of some of the medicinal vegetables of the country. The virtues of several of these are now in a great measure lost to the community, because unknown, or imperfectly ascertained. To persons residing in the country, the study of botany would beguile the time which, from want of some useful pursuit, frequently hangs heavy on their hands. To the pious it affords a constant source of love and gratitude to the Author of nature, for having done so much to benefit and please his creatures. To persons of taste and refinement, it affords a continual feast. To the studious, by encouraging and rewarding rural excursions, it gives agreeable relaxation and wholesome exercise, without wasting any of their time; for by exchanging their retirement and books for the woods and the volume of nature, the improvement of the mind goes on, while the body acquires new vigor: and to all it affords a never-failing source of enjoyment and employment which smooths the brow of care, and gives a zest to life.

Much has Carolina done for the encouragement of literature. One step more will justify her sons in claiming pre-eminent rank for generously patronizing science. A botanical garden at Columbia, of about twenty acres, would cost but little, and under proper management could not fail to diffuse knowledge among the youth of the country, of immense practical use, leading to discoveries that, even in a pecuniary point of view, would probably repay with handsome interest the pittance necessary for its support.

LITERARY HISTORY OF SOUTH CAROLINA,

FROM 1670 TO 1808.

CHAPTER IX.

The colonists of modern times have many advantages over those of antiquity, for they carry with them the civilization, arts, and refinements of the times in which they lived and the countries from which they migrated. The settlement of Carolina commenced some considerable time after the discovery of printing—the reformation of religion—and the restoration of learning. It was nearly coeval with the institution of the Royal Society of London, and began at a time when Addison, Boyle, Boerhaave, Barrow, Fenelon, Hale, Locke, Milton, Newton, Rollin, Sydney, Sydenham, Sloan, Tillotson, Watts, and many other suns of intellect were living and enlightening the world with the beams of knowledge. Though few if any of the early settlers of the province were learned men, yet they brought with them general ideas of European literature. The subsequent improvements in the old world were soon transmitted to the new, and by the noble art of printing extensively diffused. The opportunities enjoyed by the emigrants to South Carolina for rapidly rising to consequence, surpassed those which had been at any period within the grasp of the colonies of Asia; or even of Greece or Rome. To prepare the soil for cultivation—to provide shelter and the necessaries of life, must have engrossed the first care of the early settlers; but this was no sooner accomplished than they adopted measures for promoting the moral and literary improvement of themselves, and particularly of the rising generation. In the year 1700 a law was passed "for securing the provincial library of Charlestown." This had been previously formed by the liberality of Dr. Bray, the lords proprietors, and the inhabitants of the province; and was, by special act of the Legislature, deposited in the hands of the minister of the Church of England in Charlestown, for the time being, to be loaned out to the inhabitants in succession, under the direction and care of James Moore, Joseph Morton, Nicholas Trott, Ralph Izard, Job Howe, Thomas Smith, Robert Stevens, Joseph Croskeys, and Robert Fenwicke; who were appointed commissioners for that purpose. Libraries were soon after formed in the different parishes, but chiefly for the use of the rectors and ministers. Most of the books in these parochial libraries were the gift either of Dr. Bray or of the society for

propagating the gospel in foreign parts; but the assembly took them all under their care, and subjected them to the visitations of the commissioners appointed to secure the provincial library. From this time forward the circulation of books—the establishment of churches—and the settlement of Episcopal ministers in the different parishes, were encouraged by legislative acts, private donations, and by the liberality of the English society for propagating the gospel. About a hundred years ago that society considered the Carolinas as proper objects of their attention, and contributed in different ways to their literary and religious instruction. Their efforts were seconded by the people and the Legislature. The settlers were so few, and so indigent, that they could not have accomplished the object wished for to any proper extent from their own resources, but the bounty of the society encouraged legislative and private exertions, and their combined efforts were rewarded with success. In a few years the Episcopal churches near Charlestown were supplied with preachers, and several of them with parochial libraries. Such was the zeal of the assembly for promoting the religious instruction of the infant colony, that they advanced £25 to Episcopal clergymen on their arrival in the province; and in case of their election to a benefice their salary was paid by the treasury retrospectively from the day of their landing.

In the years 1710 and 1712 the assembly passed laws "for founding and erecting a free-school in Charlestown for the use of the inhabitants of South Carolina. The preamble of the latter, after setting forth "the necessity that a free-school be erected for the instruction of youth in grammar and other arts and sciences, and also in the principles of the christian religion; and that several well disposed christians, by their last wills had given several sums of money for the founding a free-school," proceeds to enact, "that Charles Craven, Charles Hart, Thomas Broughton, Nicholas Trott, Arthur Middleton, Richard Beresford, William Rhett, Gideon Johnson, Francis Lejau, Robert Maul, Ralph Izard, Joseph Morton, George Logan, Alexander Parris, Hugh Grange, and William Gibbon, and their successors, be a body corporate, by the name of the commissioners for founding, erecting, governing and visiting a free-school for the use of the inhabitants of South Carolina, with all the powers of a corporation, and with particular authority to take possession of all gifts and legacies formerly given for the use of the free-school, and to take up or purchase as much land as might be deemed necessary for the use of the school, and to erect thereon suitable buildings." It also enacted "that John Douglass should be preceptor or teacher of said school; and that on his ceasing to be so, the commis-

sioners should appoint his successor, who should be of the religion of the Church of England, and capable of teaching the Latin and Greek languages—that the teacher should have a salary of £100 per annum, to be paid out of the public treasury, and the use of the lands and buildings belonging to the school, for which he was to teach twelve scholars, to be nominated by the commisssioners, free of expense; and for all others he was to receive at the rate of £4 per annum." Provision was also made "for the support of an usher and a master to teach writing, arithmetic, merchant's accompts, surveying, navigation, and practical mathematics." It was also enacted, "that any school-master settled in a country parish, and approved by the vestry, should receive ten pounds per annum from the public treasury;" and that "the vestries should be authorized to draw from the same source twelve pounds towards building a school-house in each of the country parishes."

Sir Francis Nicholson, the first royal Governor of the province, was a great friend to learning. He liberally contributed to its support, and pressed on the inhabitants the usefulness and necessity of provincial establishments for its advancement. Animated by his example and urged by his persuasions, they engaged in providing seminaries for the instruction of youth. Besides general contributions, several particular legacies were also left for this purpose. Mr. Whitmarsh left five hundred pounds to St. Paul's parish for founding a free-school in it. Mr. Ludlam, the society's missionary at Goose creek, bequeathed all his estate, which was computed to amount to two thousand pounds, for the same purpose. Richard Beresford, by his will, bequeathed the annual profits of his estate, to be paid to the vestry of St. Thomas' parish, in trust, until his son, then eight years of age, should arrive at the age of twenty-one; directing them to apply one-third of the yearly profits of this estate for the support of one or more schoolmasters, who should teach writing, accounts, mathematics, and other liberal learning, and the other two-thirds for the support, maintenance, and education of the poor of that parish. The vestry accordingly received from this estate six thousand five hundred pounds for promoting these pious and charitable purposes. This fund is still in existence, and has long been known by the name of "Beresford's bounty."

In 1733 a free-school was erected at Childsbury, in St. John's parish, on the foundation of £600 bequeathed for that purpose by James Childs, and £2,200 subscribed by the parishioners. The interest of £200 bequeathed by Francis Williams was also appropriated as a fund for teaching poor scholars. Thomas Broughton, Thomas Hasel, Anthony Bon-

neau, John Harleston, Nathaniel Broughton, Thomas Cordes, and Francis Lejau, were appointed trustees, with the necessary powers for promoting the interests of the institution.

In the year 1734 a free school was erected in Dorchester. Alexander Skeene, Thomas Waring, Joseph Blake, Arthur Middleton, Ralph Izard, Robert Wright, Paul Jenys, Walter Izard, Benjamin Waring, Francis Vernod, William Cattel and John Williams, were appointed trustees for taking care of its interests.

The corporations of these several free-schools were cherished by government. They were favored in taking up lands which have ever since been increasing in value. They formed a centre to which were drawn the donations and bequests of the charitable. From the triple source of tuition money, public bounty and private donations, a fund was created which diffused the means of education far beyond what could have been accomplished by uncombined exertions conducted without union or system.

With the growing wealth of the province the schools became more numerous and co-extended with the spreading population. The number of individuals who could afford to maintain private tutors and of natives who were sent abroad for education, increased in like manner. None of the British provinces in proportion to their numbers sent so many of their sons to Europe for education as South Carolina.* This was the consequence of the superior value of her exports, particularly rice and indigo. These furnished ample means of defraying the expenses of being educated in and of traveling over Europe. The knowledge of grammar and of the Latin and Green languages, and of mathematics, could be obtained in Carolina at any time after 1712, or the forty-second year subsequent to the settlement of the province. The views of the assembly with respect to domestic education did not for a considerable time extend any further. The project of a provincial college was never seriously brought forward till the year 1769, when a bill for that purpose was introduced and discussed before the assembly but finally miscarried. Men of moderate circumstances had not influence enough to carry it through, and the rich did not need it; for they disregarded the

*South Carolina has furnished to the United States two Presidents of the revolutionary Congress; a Chief-Justice and an Associate-Judge of the supreme court; six diplomatic characters; a comptroller and treasurer; three General officers for the revolutionary army; a Major-General for the army of 1798, and a Brigadier-General for the army of 1808. In addition to this, the vote of the State in 1800 might have elevated one of its citizens either to the presidency or vice-presidency. With the exception of Virginia, no State in the Union has obtained a greater, or even an equal proportion of national honors. This was in some degree the consequence of the attention paid by the early settlers of Carolina to the liberal education of their children.

expense of sending their sons to the seminaries of Europe. The natives of Carolina, though educated in Great Britain, were not biased in favor of that country. Most of them joined heartily in the revolution, and from their superior knowledge were eminently useful as civil and military officers in directing the efforts of their countrymen in defense of their rights.* The ideas which prevailed under the royal government hostile to a provincial college as likely to level many existing distinctions between the children of the rich and poor, were done away in the glorious struggle for the rights of man which commenced about the year 1776. During the revolution popular opinion took a contrary course and ran in an opposite direction. In 1785, only two years after the establishment of peace and independence, no less than three colleges were constituted on the same day. One was located on the sea-coast in Charlestown, another in Winnsborough near the centre of the State, and a third in Cambridge near its western extremity. Several legacies at different periods had been left to the first college that should be founded. These were equally divided between the three colleges then established, according to the wishes of the respective friends of each, who claimed an equal share on the double ground of their having made extraordinary and meritorious exertions in fostering a school in each place, and of the more extensive accommodation to the dispersed inhabitants. The number defeated the intentions of the assembly, for neither could be properly supported on the third of the common stock. They are colleges in name, but in reality only grammar schools.

In the year 1795 the citizens of Beaufort preferred a claim to have a charter granted for a college to be erected in their vicinity. The advocates of the measure urged the uncommon healthiness of the place, the great number of their youth, and the danger of sending them from the wholesome air and pure morals of their native spot either to the capital or distant parts of the country. They prevailed so far as to obtain a charter and such funds as they could collect from the sale of escheated and confiscated property in the district, and also from the sales of the vacant lots in the town of Beaufort. The latter in a few years rose two or three hundred per cent. in value, and aided the funds of the institution beyond the expectation of its most sanguine friends. Suitable buildings for the accommodation of the students were begun, and schools set on foot

* This is the more remarkable as the reverse took place in other provinces. The circumstance is particularly mentioned "as a source of serious regret" by the illustrious Washington in his last will, and was assigned as a reason for his ardent wish "to see an university established in the central parts of the United States, to which the youths of fortune and talents should be sent from all parts for the completion of their education."

preparatory to the college. The seminary blossomed well, but little fruit has yet been gathered, though there is reason to believe that when its funds are productive, and the world is composed to peace, it will realize the hopes of its friends. It has many natural advantages favorable to the proper education of youth.

The multiplication of colleges did not answer the end. Instead of yielding any more to the partial wishes of sections of the State the Assembly, in the year 1801, took up the business on its proper ground and passed a law for building and endowing a college at the seat of government, by the name of the South Carolina College, under the care of its high responsible officers, together with thirteen others, to be chosen every fourth year by the Assembly. This measure was strongly recommended by Governor Drayton in his message to the Legislature; and a report from Comptroller Hamilton on the finances of the State proved its ability to meet the expense. The establishment of a State college was carried through with unexampled unanimity, all parties concurring therein, and ample funds appropriated from the public treasury for erecting all requisite buildings, for the purchase of a suitable library, of a complete apparatus for philosophical purposes and for the annual support of a president, professors and other teachers. The narrow policy which prevailed under the royal government, of confining the choice even of teachers for the free-schools to one sect of christians, had been done away by the constitution. In the true spirit of free representative government persons of every country and State, of every sect and party, were equally eligible to be teachers in this cherished seminary. The Reverend Dr. Maxcey, who had, with great reputation presided over Brown university, in Rhode Island, and Union college, in the State of New York, was elected the first President. Under his auspices the college has flourished to as great an extent as could reasonably be expected in the short period of its existence. Its present number of students is 87: two classes amounting to about forty have already graduated. If its pupils are not wanting to themselves they may be amply instructed in every language, art and science, necessary to prepare them for the service of their country. This college, yet in its infancy, possesses a very select and extensive library, and a philosophical apparatus not inferior to any on the continent.

Education has also been fostered in South Carolina by several societies as a part of a general plan of charity. The oldest of this class is the South Carolina society, which was formed about the year 1737.

It pays the salary of a school-master and school-mistress for

the education of children of both sexes. Since the commencement of their school several hundreds of pupils have received the benefit of a plain education from its bounty. There is a succession of scholars. None are received under eight years of age and none are retained beyond fourteen, and the girls not beyond twelve. The present number is seventy-two, and that is steadily kept up; for as fast as any of the pupils are dismissed, their place is supplied by the admission of others. The present funds of this society amount to 137,000 dollars. Since its foundation twenty-seven decayed members, and the widows of sixty-four deceased members, have been annually supported; four hundred and forty children educated, and three hundred and seven of them clothed from its bounty. At present seventy-two children are educated by the society. These are either destitute orphans, or the offspring of needy parents. One indigent member and sixteen widows of decayed members, are also at present maintained by the society.

The Fellowship society, incorporated in 1769, was originally intended to cover under its sheltering wing the deplorable maniac; and for that purpose appropriated one-half of its funds. With the other moiety it has followed the humane example of the last mentioned society, and bestows a gratuitous education on the children of misfortune. Twenty-five children are now under a course of plain education on its bounty.

The St. Andrew's society have in like manner lately appropriated a portion of their funds for similar purposes, and twenty children are now educated at their expense.

The Wynyaw Indigo society was incorporated in 1756. The original design of the founders of this institution was of a patriotic and charitable nature. It had in view the improvement of the culture and manufacture of indigo, and the endowment of a free-school. The object of the society is now wholly confined to the education of orphan children. Since its commencement there have been educated and supported upon its bounty between one and two hundred orphans. From the continual accession of new members the funds are in a flourishing condition, and enable the society to educate twenty children annually.

The German Friendly Society, incorporated in 1791, gives a gratuitous education to about twenty children in succession.

With these five last mentioned societies, education is only a collateral part of their general plan; but since the revolution, societies and academies have been formed and incorporated at different periods in almost every part of the State; primarily for the encouragement and support of schools. To these generally have been given by the Assembly the escheated and unsold confiscated property in their respective districts.

The names of these, as far as can be recollected, are the Mount Zion society, incorporated in 1777; St. David's, in 1778; the Minerva academy, fourteen miles below Columbia, in which about fifty-six scholars are educated; the Camden Orphan society, in which a few children are educated on charity, and about sixty who pay for their education. The trustees of this institution have purchased the large elegant mansion house of the late Colonel Joseph Kershaw for the use of the school and its teachers. The Clarendon Orphan society, incorporated in 1798; the Trustees, for establishing public schools in the district of Orangeburg, incorporated also in 1798; the Mount Bethel academy; the Clermont society, for the purpose of endowing a seminary of learning at Statesburgh; the Friendly Cambridge society.

Among the different sects of Christians in South Carolina, none have made earlier or greater exertions for promoting religious knowledge than the Baptists. Their Charlestown association was formed in the year 1752, and then consisted only of four or five churches. Under their patronage, collections soon began to be made to assist pious young men in obtaining an education for the gospel ministry. They assisted several. Of these, four or five arrived to considerable eminence. One in particular, Doctor Stillman, shone as a distinguished luminary of the church in Boston. In the year 1775, several of the leading members of the association formed themselves into a society by the name of "The Society for Improvement in Christian Knowledge," which pursued the plan of educating pious young men for the ministry, but connected with it the formation of a select library and the discussion of useful theological subjects at a weekly meeting. Under the same patronage a more extensive society was formed in 1792, and soon after incorporated by the name of "The General Committee for the Charlestown Baptist Association Fund." Besides donations and bequests, there are yearly collections made in the Baptist churches for improving the funds of this society. Nine young men under its care have finished their studies preparatory for the ministry, and two more are far advanced in a similar course. The committee have provided a respectable library for the use of the students, which as kept by the Reverend Mr. Roberts, near Statesburgh, and some useful books have been distributed among indigent clergymen. In the year 1802, a missionary scheme was formed by the Charlestown association which was placed under the direction of a special committee, and the Reverend John Rooker was appointed missionary to the Catawba Indians. A school was also opened among them, and a considerable number of the Indian children have been taught to

read and write, and a few the use of figures. The Indians have treated the preacher and school-master with respect, and attended their instructions with apparent seriousness. Some of them have become more enlightened and civilized; but none have hitherto made any regular profession of Christianity.*

The Independents or Congregationalists of Charlestown, in 1802, formed a society for promoting the interests of religion. They have amassed funds to the amount of 2,000 dollars. From the interest of this capital—annual subscriptions and collections, they support a missionary to preach to and instruct the inhabitants in such parts of the State as are destitute of the ordinary means of acquiring religious knowledge; and among such they distribute Bibles, and other books of practical religion. In 1804, a number of ladies in Charlestown formed themselves into "a Society for distributing pious books and erecting country schools for the children of the poor." They appointed a committee consisting of Mrs. Hollinshead, president; Mrs. Waring, treasurer; and Miss Edwards, secretary; Mrs. Gregorie, Mrs. M'Calla and Mrs. Beach, to transact the business of the society. Each of these and some others circulated among their acquaintances papers soliciting charitable contributions. From the proceeds, amounting to more than 4,000 dollars in the first four years after the institution of the society, they have been enabled to distribute a number of religious books and to establish and support a school near the head branches of Goose creek, in which twenty-seven scholars are educated and partly maintained at their expense. Within twenty-five miles of Charlestown they found in one neighborhood seventeen families containing sixty-one children, who were destitute of the means of instruction. This is now freely imparted to them by the society. The funds of the institution have been managed with such address that, over and above paying all current expenses, they have purchased fifty-one shares in the South Carolina Bank; the dividends of which are appropriated as a perennial spring to water this and similar institutions which they have resolved to ex-

* It is truly honorable to the Baptists that they have done so much for the interests of learning and religion, and particularly for the instruction of the Indians; and it is lamentable that the State has done so little for the latter purpose. The Catawba Indians have for a long time been friendly, and have lived among, or rather have been surrounded by white people, and yet no one effort has been made by the State for the civilization and religious instruction of this tribe, nor of any of the Indians. A century and a half has not passed away since these people were the sole possessors of the whole of this extensive and beautiful country; but these former lords of the soil have been driven from river to river—from forest to forest—rolled back nation upon nation, till they are fugitives, vagrants and strangers in their own land. Carolinians! cherish the few that remain, and prevent their cursing the day on which white men landed in the country of their forefathers.

tend and establish as far and as soon as their means will enable them. The late happy revolution in South Carolina was essentially aided by the patriotism of its ladies. Exertions like the present, tend to make that revolution a real blessing; for knowledge and morality are the main pillars of our free and happy government.

In Union district there is a grammar school situated on Fair Forest, and has about twenty grammar scholars. It is supported by a society under the name of the Philomathean Society. This society have it under their patronage and direction, and promise a certain annual sum to the teacher, which they pay up by contribution if the tuition money fails; independent of this they tax themselves with a certain sum per annum, for the purpose of raising a fund for the erection of an academy.

In Newberry district there are two very respectable academies; they were originated and have been carried on with much spirit. Bethel Academy is under the patronage of the Methodist Society, and is much indebted to the zeal and influence of the Reverend Mr. Dorothy, deceased. It is situated in the centre of a pleasant and wealthy neighborhood, and as the gentlemen of the vicinage feel a zeal for the welfare of the academy, they keep plentiful boarding at a reasonable price. This academy sometimes has seventy or eighty students. It is generally filled by a respectable teacher.

The Newberry Academy was established by contributions, and is about one mile from Newberry court house. For the better support of it they procured leave of the Legislature to raise a sum of money by lottery. It is very well supplied with a respectable teacher and a competent number of students. This institution is much indebted to the zeal and liberality of Colonel Rutherford.

In Spartanburg district there is one grammar school called the Minerva school, with about twenty grammar scholars. It is supported and patronized by a society under the name of the Philanthropic society. It is situated in a high, healthy part of the country, and the neighborhood affords plentiful and good boarding at a reasonable price. It is supplied with a respectable teacher.

Besides what has been done by the State, and by religious sects and private societies for the advancement of learning and the diffusion of religious knowledge among the inhabitants, there are several private schools, both in Charlestown and the country, for teaching classical and mathematical learning. Among these one under the care of the Reverend Dr. Waddell, of Abbeville district, deserves particular notice. In it from seventy to eighty students are instructed in the

Latin, Greek and French languages, and such of the arts and sciences as are necessary to prepare a candidate for admission into the higher classes at the northern colleges.* The school-house is a plain log building in the mi[illegible] of the woods, in a hilly and healthy country, and too small to accommodate all the scholars in the hours of study. To obviate this inconvenience they are permitted and encouraged to build huts in the vicinity. These are the rough carpentry of the pupils, or constructed by workmen for about four dollars. In these, when the weather is cold, and under the trees when it is warm, the different classes study. To the common school or recitation room they instantly repair when called for by the name of the Homer, the Xenophen, the Cicero, the Horace, or Virgil class, or by the name of the author whose writings they are reading. In a moment they appear before their preceptor, and with order and decorum recite their lessons—are critically examined in grammar and syntax—the construction of sentences—the formation of verbs—the antiquities of Greece and Rome—the history and geography of the ancients, illustrative of the author whose works they recite; and are taught to relish his beauties, and enter into his spirit. Thus class succeeds to class without the formality of definite hours for study or recreation, till all have recited. In the presence of the students assembled, a solemn and appropriate prayer, imploring the Eternal in their behalf, begins and ends the exercises of each day. In this manner the classics are taught 190 miles from the sea-coast. The glowing periods of Cicero are read and admired. The melody and majesty of Homer delight the ear and charm the understanding, in the very spot, and under the identical trees, which sixty years ago resounded with the war-whoop and horrid yellings of savage Indians. Of the large number that attend this school, nine in ten are as studious as their health will permit, and as orderly in their conduct as their friends could wish. Far removed from the dissipation of cities, and among sober, industrious, and religious people, they must be studious, or lose all character and be pointed at by the finger of scorn. If disposed to be idle or vicious, they cannot be so otherwise than by themselves; for the place will not furnish them with associates. Monitors are appointed to superintend each sub-division of the students; and such as transgress the rules of the school are reported once in every week. Over them a court is held. They are allowed to justify or extenuate. A summary decision is made. Though corporeal punishment is not wholly excluded, it is

* Dr. Smith, the learned President of Nassau Hall, in New Jersey, has repeatedly said, that he receives no scholars from any section of the United States who stand a better examination than the pupils of Dr. Waddel.

rarely inflicted. The discipline of the institution respects the pride of youth, and is chiefly calculated to repress irregular conduct by attaching to it shame and dishonor. The sagacious preceptor quickly finds out the temper and disposition of each student, and is the first to discover aberrations from the straight line of propriety. By nipping mischief in the bud, he prevents its coming to any serious height. By patience in teaching, and minutely explaining what is difficult, he secures the affections of his pupils and smooths their labors; while at the same time judicious praise rouses ambition, and kindles in their breasts an ardent love for improvement, and an eagerness to deserve and gain applause.*

Though the State and individuals have done much to encourage education among the youth of Carolina, the proportion of the rising generation which is pressing forward with such ardent zeal for knowledge, as bids fair to secure for them high seats in the temple of fame, is lamentably small. In genius they are not deficient, but perseverance in a long continued, close application to study is too often wanting. Many of them will not learn Greek at all. Others learn it so super-

*A clergyman with the same name with this illustrious instructor of youth in Abbeville, and his relative, died near Richmond about the year 1806. It is remarkable that both these distinguished namesakes lived in similar situations, remote from the public eye, in country retirement. The merits of the Virginia Waddel were first brought before the public in a letter published in a Virginia newspaper in 1803, purporting to be written by an English gentleman traveling in the United States, to a member of the British Parliament; but generally ascribed to the celebrated William Wirt, of Richmond. From this letter the following extract is taken: "It was one Sunday, as I traveled through the county of Orange, that my eye was caught by a cluster of horses tied near a ruinous old wooden house in the forest, not far from the roadside. I had no difficulty in understanding that this was a place of religious worship. Curiosity to hear the preacher of such a wilderness was not the least of my motives for joining the congregation. On entering, I was struck with his preternatural appearance. He was a tall and very spare old man; his head, which was covered with a white linen cap, his shriveled hands and his voice—were all shaking under the influence of a palsy, and a few moments ascertained to me that he was perfectly blind. The first emotions that touched my breast were those of mingled pity and veneration. But ah! how soon were all my feelings changed. The lips of Plato were never more worthy of a prognostic swarm of bees than were the lips of this holy man. It was a day of the administration of the sacrament, and his subject of course was the passion of our Savior. I had heard the subject handled a thousand times: I had thought it exhausted long ago. Little did I suppose that in the wild woods of America, I was to meet with a man whose eloquence would give to this topic a new and more sublime pathos than I had ever before witnessed. As he descended from the pulpit to distribute the mystic symbols, there was a peculiar, a more than human solemnity in his air and manner, which made my blood run cold and my whole frame to shiver. He then drew a picture of the sufferings of our Savior, his trial before Pilate, his ascent up Calvary, his crucifixion, and his death. I knew the whole history, but never until then had I heard the circumstances so selected, so arranged, so colored. It was all new, and I seemed to have heard it for the first time in my life. His enunciation was so deliberate that his voice trembled on every syllable, and every heart in the assembly trembled in unison. His peculiar phrases had that force of description, that the original scene appeared to be at that moment acting before our eyes. But when he came to touch the patience, the forgiving meekness of our Savior; when he drew to the life his blessed eyes streaming in tears to heaven; his voice breathing to God a soft and gentle prayer of pardon on his enemies—"Father forgive them, for they know

ficially that it is soon forgotten. Very few can bring their knowledge of either the Latin or Greek classics to bear on any subject of conversation, or writing, seven years after they have done with school. What is thoroughly learned cannot be so easily forgotten. A few, with little or no classical education, by the help of superior natural powers and an industrious course of English reading, have made a distinguished figure in public life. Their success, like the large prizes in a lottery, inspires false hopes in the breasts of others, who have neither the talents nor industry of those whom they affect to resemble. So much of the precious period of youth is frequently spent in doing nothing of any value, or in frivolous amusements, that too little is left for completing a solid education in its proper season. Whether this is attained or not, the pursuit of it oftener terminates under twenty, than continues beyond that period. Several affect to be men, and some are really fathers when they ought to be at school. How far the youth of the upper country will merit exemption from these remarks, remains to be ascertained by time. There are already some promising appearances in their favor. Youths of great hopes

not what they do"—the voice of the preacher, which had all along faltered, grew fainter and fainter, until his utterance became entirely obstructed by the force of his feelings; he raised his handkerchief to his eyes, and burst into a loud and irrepressible flood of grief. The effect is inconceivable: the whole house resounded with the mingled groans and sobs of the congregation. It was some time before the tumult had subsided, so far as to permit him to proceed. I began to be very uneasy for the situation of the preacher; for I could not conceive how he would be able to let his audience down from the height to which he had wound them, without impairing the solemnity and dignity of his subject, or perhaps shocking them by the abruptness of the fall. But, no: the descent was as beautiful and sublime as the elevation had been rapid and enthusiastic. The first sentence with which he broke the awful silence, was a quotation from Rousseau: "Socrates died like a philosopher, but Jesus Christ like a God." I despair of giving you any idea of the effect produced by this short sentence, unless you could perfectly conceive the whole manner of the man, as well as the peculiar crisis in the discourse. Never before did I completely understand what Demosthenes meant by laying such stress on delivery. You are to bring before you the venerable figure of the preacher; his blindness constantly recalling to your recollection old Homer, Ossian, and Milton, and associating with his performance the melancholy grandeur of their geniuses; you are to imagine that you hear his slow, solemn, well-accented enunciation, and his voice of affecting, trembling melody; you are to remember the pitch of passion and enthusiasm to which the congregation were raised; and then the few minutes of portentous death-like silence which reigned thoughout the house; the preacher removing his white handkerchief from his aged face, even yet wet from the recent torrent of his tears, and slowly stretching forth the palsied hand which holds it, begins the sentence: "Socrates died like a philosopher;" then pausing, raising his other hand, pressing them both clasped together with warmth and energy to his breast, lifting his "sightless balls" to heaven, and pouring his whole soul into his tremulous voice; "but Jesus Christ like a God." If he had been indeed and in truth an angel of light, the effect could scarcely have been more divine. Whatever I had been able to conceive of the sublimity of Massillon or the force of Bourdaloue, had fallen far short of the power which I felt from the delivery of this simple sentence. The blood which just before had rushed in a hurricane upon my brain, and in the violence and agony of my feelings, had held my whole system in suspense, now ran back into my heart with a sensation which I cannot describe, a kind of shuddering, delicious horror.

"If this description gives you the impression that this incomparable minister had anything of shallow theatrical trick in his manner, it does him great injustice.

are coming forward into public life from the western woods.

A general system of education has often been before the Assembly, but nothing has yet been determined on the subject. In several extensive but thinly populated settlements there are no schools; and children are advancing in years without being able to read. In a Christian State, professing to believe that the bible is the word of God, it is no small reproach that there should be any so ignorant as to be incapable of reading it.*

The assembly did not confine their patronage of literature merely to the erection of schools and colleges, but encouraged the practical arts. The first law passed for that purpose was as early as 1691, in the 22d year after the settlement of the province. This was entitled "an Act for the better encouragement of the making of engines for the propagating the staples of the colony." A law was passed in 1707 "for en-

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I have never seen in any other orator such an union of simplicity and majesty. He has not a gesture, an attitude, or an accent, to which he does not seem forced by the sentiment which he is expressing. His mind is too serious, too earnest, too solicitous, and, at the same time, too dignified to stoop to artifice. Although as far removed from ostentation as a man can be, yet it is clear, from the train, the style, and substance of his thoughts, that he is not only a very polite scholar, but a man of extensive and profound erudition. I was forcibly struck with a short yet beautiful character which he drew of our learned and amiable countryman, Sir Robert Boyle; he spoke of him as if "his noble mind had even before death divested herself of all influence from his frail tabernacle of flesh," and called him, in his peculiarly emphatic and impressive manner, "a pure intelligence, the link between men and angels."

"This man has been before my imagination almost ever since; a thousand times as I rode along I dropped the reins of my bridle, stretched forth my hand, and tried to imitate his quotation from Rousseau; a thousand times I abandoned the attempt in despair, and felt persuaded that his peculiar manner and power, arose from an energy of soul, which nature could give, but which no human being could justly copy. In short, he seems to be altogether a being of a former age, or of a totally different nature from the rest of men. Guess my surprise when on my arrival at Richmond, and mentioning the name of this man, I found not one person who had ever before heard of James Waddel. Is it not strange that such a genius as this, so accomplished a scholar, so divine an orator, should be permitted to languish and die in obscurity within eighty miles of the metropolis of Virginia! To me it is a conclusive argument either that the Virginians have no taste for the highest strains of the most sublime oratory, or that they are destitute of a much more important quality, the love of genuine and exalted religion. Indeed it is too clear my friend that this soil abounds more in weeds of foreign birth, than in good and salubrious fruits. Among others the noxious weed of infidelity has struck a deep a fatal root, and spread its pestilential branches far around. I fear that our eccentric and fanciful countryman Godwin, has contributed not a little to water and cherish this pernicious exotic. There is a novelty, a splendor, a boldness in his scheme of morals peculiarly fitted to captivate a youthful and an ardent mind."

*This reproach can now be more easily wiped off than heretofore; for the ingenuity of Mr. Lancaster has lately contrived and introduced into practice, with success, a new and easy method, by which one man can at the same time teach a thousand persons to read. A school in New York, and another in Philadelphia, have been lately set up on this plan, and have been found to answer. A salary for the teacher, and a large house for the pupils, are all the items which involve any material expense in executing Mr. Lancaster's system. When the Assembly in this or some other mode shall have put it in the power of the poorest person to be taught the art of reading and writing, they will then have done a full orbed duty to all classes of the people, as far as their literary interests are concerned.

couraging the making potash and salt petre;" one in 1712 "for encouraging the building saw mills and other mechanic engines;" and two in 1725 "for the encouragement of making salt in the province." Peter Villepontaux, Francis Gracia, Charles Lowndes, and Adam Pedington, between the years 1732 and 1756, severally received legislative encouragement in favor of machines made or projected by them respectively for pounding, beating, and cleaning rice. These and some other laws of a similar tendency passed while South Carolina was a British province. On the establishment of independence, and peace, the business was taken up in the proper style of a sovereign State. In 1784, a law was passed "for the encouragement of arts and sciences," by which it was enacted, "that the authors or proprietors of books, and the inventors of useful machines, should have the exclusive benefit of their labors or inventions on certain restrictions for the term of fourteen years; and renewable for a second term of fourteen years if the authors or inventors were then living." This power was exercised by the State liberally for the encouragement of genius till it was voluntarily transferred to the United States in 1788 for more general benefit.

Except the provincial library, coeval with the eighteenth century, which has disappeared, the eldest establishment of that kind is the Charlestown Library Society, founded in 1748, and incorporated in 1754. It consisted originally of the following seventeen members: John Sinclair, John Cooper, Peter Timothy, James Grindlay, William Burrows, Morton Brailsford, Charles Stevenson, John Neufville, Thomas Sacheverell, Robert Brisbane, Samuel Brailsford, Paul Douxsaint, Thomas Middleton, Alexander Baron, Alexander M'Caulay, Patrick M'Kie, and William Logan; and has been ever since increasing in members, funds, and books. It at present possesses 4,500 volumes, and consists of 230 members: its capital in bank shares and stock, 11,600 dollars; yearly income, 3,400 dollars; annual expenses, 1,500 dollars. It is deficient in ancient literature,* but contains a very ample collection of elegant and costly works in botany, natural history, voyages, travels, civil history, biography, and miscellaneous literature. It also receives a regular annual supply from London of new

* On the 17th of January, 1778, a very extensive fire took place in Charlestown, when this library, containing between six and seven thousand volumes, comprising a very valuable collection of ancient authors, with paintings, prints, a pair of elegant globes, mathematical and other instruments, and many specimens of natural history, was almost totally destroyed. Since the establishment of peace the attention of the society has been principally directed to the most valuable modern authors.

A beginning has also been made towards the formation of a museum. Among the natural curiosities of Carolina there collected, are the heads of two deer with their branching horns so interlocked that they cannot be detached from each

and valuable publications. Similar respectable establishments have been made in Union, Newberry, Laurens, and Abbeville districts; also in Camden, Georgetown, and Columbia; but of recent date.* There are libraries forming at many of the court houses, as central places of deposit for the districts, which are enlarging gradually, and extending a taste for reading. They are in the nature of circulating libraries among the proprietors.

Many of the wealthy planters have respectable libraries for their private use, and they are not backward in adding to them from time to time, especially new and popular publications. The booksellers declare that the sale of books progressively increases except in times of general distress from some common calamity. They add further, that school-books, and such as treat of religion, are in the greatest demand. Mr. Davidson, the worthy and respectable Librarian of the Charlestown Library, adds, as a further evidence of an increasing taste for literature in Carolina, that the number of books loaned out for reading has increased astonishingly in the period of eleven years, during which he has been charged with the care of the society's books.

So many are the readers in Carolina, compared with the books within their reach, that much of their knowledge in theology, moral philosophy, ancient history, manners, and customs, is derived from their bibles; and a great proportion of what they know respecting politics and government, the modern improvements in arts and sciences, and the present state of the world, is derived from newspapers. The amount of knowledge collected from these two sources by some retired citizens, exceeds what strangers could expect. Having

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other. These were parts of two skeletons found in the woods of Beaufort district, lying in opposite directions. It is conjectured on probable grounds that in butting each other their respective long diverging antlers became so entangled as to be incapable of separation. In this state of unnatural union they must either have starved, or have been devoured by birds of prey. A spectator cannot avoid reflecting that duels between individuals, and wars between nations are often as causeless in their origin, and as ruinous in their consequence, as the fatal contest of these cervine combatants.

* A library society might be instituted on the following plan in every neighborhood, which at a small expense would afford to its members an opportunity of reading a considerable number of books; let any given number associate and each pay a certain sum to be agreed upon, and with that purchase books. When the books are procured let every subscriber choose and take home as many of them as he pleases, not exceeding in price the amount of his subscription. The priority of choice to be in the alphabetical order of their names. In every fortnight, month, or other regular period to be agreed on, let all the books be returned, and a new distribution be made on the same principle; but he who has had the first choice shall immediately thereupon be put at the foot of the list and have his next choice last; and so on successively, till the last in the alphabetical arrangement has the first choice. The books may then be sold, and the proceeds or a second sum advanced by the subscribers, may be applied to the purchase of a new collection to be distributed in rotation as before.

but little to read, they read that little well. Their bibles, when carefully studied and one part made to expound another by the help of marginal references, open an extensive view of the origin of the world, and the great revolutions it has undergone—of ancient nations, and particularly of the real state of human nature, in every clime and age. No history was ever better written than that of the Jews, by their own Moses. And there is more knowledge respecting the first half of the whole period that has elapsed since the creation of man to be obtained from the bible, than from any other source. In our popular government, where contending parties exert their utmost powers by eloquent appeals to the people to draw them to their respective sides; and where rival editors, by the variety and importance of the contents of their papers, endeavor to extend their circulation, a flood of miscellaneous knowledge is transmitted through these daily vehicles of communication.

Newspapers began to be printed in South Carolina in or about 1730, by Lewis Timothy. From that period to the present, with some short interruptions, a paper has been constantly printed by some of that family. His great grandson, Peter Timothy Marchant, is one of the present proprietors of the Courier. Robert Wells commenced a gazette in 1758, and continued it with great spirit for about sixteen years, and was followed by his son, John Wells, in the same line till 1782. Charles Crouch also began a public newspaper in 1765 in defiance of the stamp act, and continued it till the Revolution. None but weekly papers were printed in Charlestown, and none at all in the country prior to the establishment of independence. In 1783, Mr. John Miller, formerly editor of a paper in London, began a daily one in Carolina. Three daily and two weekly papers now issue from the presses of Charlestown. A newspaper is also printed in Camden, Columbia, in Pendleton district, and at Georgetown. The public gazettes, before the principles of the Revolution began to agitate the American mind, were comparatively unimportant. Government being administered for the colonists, and not by them, they felt but little interest in its transactions. Very different is the case at present. From the concern that every man takes in public matters—from the arts of politicians, to lead or even to mislead the people connected with the spirit of free inquiry, and the enlivening energy of representative government, knowledge has become a thriving plant among the Carolinians; and many of their minds have grown far beyond the standard of their fathers who died while they were subjects.

In the course of the one hundred and six years while South

Carolina was a colony, the whole number of persons born therein who obtained the honors of literary degrees in colleges or universities, as far as can be recollected, is short of twenty; but in the thirty-two years of her independence, one hundred of her native sons have acquired that distinction. There was no grammar-school in South Carolina prior to 1730, except the free-school in Charlestown: from 1730 till 1776 there were not more than four or five, and all in or near Charlestown. Since the Revolution there are, from information, about thirty, and they are daily increasing and extending into the remotest extremities of the State.

The only well furnished book-store in provincial South Carolina, was one kept for about twenty-five years by Robert Wells, who contributed considerably to a taste for reading in Charlestown by the regular and early importation of all new and admired publications in Great Britain. Since the revolution, there have been constantly from three to six book-stores in Charlestown.

MISCELLANEOUS HISTORY OF SOUTH CAROLINA,

Virtues, Vices, Customs, and Diversions, &c. of the Inhabitants.

CHAPTER X.

The love of liberty had taken deep root in the minds of Carolinians long before it was called into action by the revolution. The first settlers fled from tyranny and persecution. In such a situation truth occurred to them every moment and effectually taught them the rights of man. Their situation and employment in a new country operated so as to enlarge and confirm the sentiments which their sufferings had first produced. The wilderness was to be cleared—habitations were to be built—the means of living were to be procured. The similarity of situation and employment produced a similarity of state and condition, and inculcated the equality of rights. They soon found that to be wise, strong, industrious and healthy, was of much more importance than to be called dukes, earls, or marquisses. They grew up with a love of liberty, and everything around them confirmed their predilections for its blessings. Two of their early Governors, Sir James Colleton and Seth Sothel, were taught by the Assembly of the province to respect the rights of freemen. In the exer-

cise of that great American right to resist tyranny and to abolish constitutions when hostile to their happiness, they threw off the proprietary yoke. Animated by the same spirit, in little more than half a century after one revolution they engaged in another. They rescinded all connection with Great Britain, and risked their lives and properties in defense of independence. Great were the sacrifices to which they submitted in the revolutionary war; but on all occasions the love of liberty was their predominant passion. Nice calculations of the probable consequences of their resisting Great Britain while they were few in numbers—exposed to dangers from their own domestics and the numerous savages on their frontiers, would have deterred them from engaging in the doubtful contest if immediate self interest had been the pole-star of their conduct. South Carolina had few or no local grievances to complain of, and might at any time have obtained good terms on submission to the mother country; but the love of liberty carried her sons honorably and triumphantly through the war, and has ever since taught them to resist all real and supposed attempts to invade their rights.

Though this disposition nourishes freedom, and is highly deserving of praise, yet it has sometimes been carried too far; especially since the revolution, and by the younger part of the community. The elder citizens have successfully contended for the rights of men. Their sons, too little accustomed to the discipline of a strict education, seem equally zealous for the rights of boys, and urge their claims so practically that many of the merchants import from Europe clerks trained to habits of obedience, rather than make vain attempts to subjugate the high minded youths of Carolina. Their repugnance to subjection is sometimes accompanied by many virtues, and affords a guarantee to the republican institutions of the country, but too often transcends the temperate medium which as cheerfully submits to proper authority as it manfully opposes what is improper and degrading.

Hospitality is another common virtue in Carolina. Innkeepers complain that this is carried to such an extent that their business is scarcely worth following. The doors of the citizens are opened to all decent travelers, and shut against none. The abundance of provisions on plantations renders the exercise of this virtue not inconvenient, and the avidity of country people for hearing news makes them rather seek than shun the calls of strangers. The State may be traveled over with very little expense by persons furnished with letters of introduction, or even without them by calling at the plantations of private gentlemen on or near the roads.

Charity is carried rather to excess in Charlestown; for the

bounty of the public is so freely bestowed and so easily obtained as to weaken the incitements to industry and sometimes to furnish facilities for indulging habits of vice. On this subject a reform is needed, and will probably soon take place. The public charitable institutions of Charlestown cost its inhabitants annually more than 30,000 dollars; the payment of which is enforced by law in the form of a city tax. The calls on them for their private contributions to relieve indigence, to promote literary, religious, charitable, and benevolent institutions, both in and out of the State, are frequently repeated and seldom or never without success. Two or three thousand dollars are often collected in a few weeks by courtly solicitors and carried off by them for purposes in the advancement of which the people of Charlestown have no direct nor immediate interest.

A sense of honor is general; but, like charity, is sometimes carried too far, and urges individuals to seek satisfaction or explanation for trifles which might with propriety pass unnoticed. The general result is however favorable to a respectful behavior of the citizens reciprocally to each other. The licentiousness of the tongue and press is seldom indulged in Carolina by the lowest classes of people, and scarcely at all by any of decent standing in society. The correct conduct of the gentlemen in the State is imitated by all ranks. There is such a general respect for propriety of behavior, that rude attacks on the characters of individuals meet with no countenance. They are for the most part more injurious to their authors than their subjects. A keen sensibility on subjects of personal honor, carried to extremes, degenerates into a vice odious in its motive, mischievous in its consequences, and particularly disgraceful to the State. Mistaken views of honor give rise to duels. These take place oftener in Carolina than in all the nine States north of Maryland. Warm weather and its attendant increase of bile in the stomach has a physical tendency to produce an irritable temper. Hence it frequently happens, especially in summer, that many things are said or done thoughtlessly and without any deliberate intention of hurting the characters or wounding the feelings of the persons to whom they relate. Genuine chivalry would either disregard such trifles, or seek for an explanation and readily accept of a slight one or such as might be made without degradation. But it is too common for sudden gusts of passion under the imposing garb of honor to urge the offended party to demand too much, and the offender to concede too little. The Christian doctrine of the forgiveness of injuries being disregarded, pride and self-love become the motives of action, and make honorable reconciliation impossible; for they urge one party

to refuse, what they urge the other to insist upon. To avoid the imputation of cowardice, the one demands reparation for an offense according to his own ideas of justice, and the other from the same motive and under the same influence refuses it. Each constitutes himself judge in his own case at a time when pride or passion hide both truth and justice from their minds. The laws of God and man being set aside, the important question of right or wrong—of character and reputation, is left to the decision of the best marksman. That duellists, who nine times in ten can strike a dollar, should at the same distance either miss their antagonists altogether, or that part of them at which they leveled, must be referred to want of self-possession. Conscious that they are doing wrong, their hands tremble and carry the bullets aside from their aim; otnerwise the death of both parties would be much more common than it is.

A few duels are recollected as having taken place before the revolutionary war, and were often fought with swords. During and since that period they have been much more frequent; and always with pistols. Their folly is equal to their guilt. They decide nothing. They neither prove the courage, the justice, nor the innocence of the parties. The greatest cowards may be urged on to fight duels, and the bravest men may, from a sense of duty to God and man, and from a conviction of their absurdity, refuse that gothic mode of settling disputes. They occasionally rid the world of a fool, a madman, a gambler, a bully, or a blackguard: but sometimes deprive society of a worthy man, who, though possessed of many virtues, has not courage enough to follow his own convictions of duty; and who is so afraid of the imputation of cowardice, that he acts the part of a coward; for, induced by fear of the censure or ridicule of a misjudging world, he deliberately does what his conscience condemns.

It is to be regretted that among the many laws which crowd the statute book of Carolina, there are none that are calculated to suppress the practice of duelling. According to the letter of the law, duellists may be prosecuted for murder; but the uniform verdict of juries for more than thirty years has adjudged the offense to be manslaughter. The burning in the hand, which is the penalty of that offense, has in every instance been remitted. The trial of a person who has killed his antagonist in a duel, is now little more than an investigation of the fairness of the procedure. If the rules of duelling have been observed, and no advantage taken, an acquittal as above stated is a matter of course. This defect in the policy of the State laws induced the Revolution society, and the South Carolina society of Cincinnati, in the year 1803, to ap-

point a committee from both societies to petition the Legislature to provide some adequate law to restrain this practice of duelling. The committee draughted a petition which, after being signed by more than 4,000 persons, was presented to the Legislature. They also by circular letters requested the clergy to preach on the subject. This was generally complied with. The public mind was enlightened on the guilt and folly of the practice; but no other benefit resulted. The Legislature did not act on the petition though the petitioners were numerous, and many of the Grand Juries had presented the want of a proper law against duelling as a grievance. The committee of the two societies at the request of some members of the Assembly, draughted a bill for the purpose intended. This was put in the hands of members of the Legislature to be brought forward as the work of a committee of their body. It contemplated the subject on new grounds and proposed a legal tribunal for deciding those points of honor which are the ordinary causes of duels, and imposed penalties affecting the honor, character, and civil privileges of the duellists, their seconds, aiders, and abettors. It did not touch the life of the survivor, but subjected his estate to the obligation of providing for the family of his deceased antagonist. In this business Major-General Charles Cotesworth Pinckney took the lead. His standing in society as an officer of high rank—his established reputation for courage and for exquisite sensibility on every subject connected with honor, gave great weight to his opinions: but all was unavailing. No law has yet been passed relative to duels; and the practice of killing men in single combat, and of acquitting the survivors, continues. South Carolina loses four or five of its citizens almost every year and sometimes embryo citizens; for lads have fought duels, who were too young to give their votes at elections or to make their wills. They dispose of their lives when they are not legally competent to dispose of their property.

Drunkenness may be called an endemic vice of Carolina. The climate disposes to it, and the combined influence of religion and education, too often fail to restrain it. The free perspiration which takes place, especially in summer, calls for a great proportion of liquid to replace the discharged fluid. Several persons are contented with the beverage of nature, and maintain good health and spirits without any artificial liquor whatever; but a much greater number drink water only when they can get nothing else. The most harmless substitute that has ever yet been found for that pure element is beer. This communicates strength while it quenches thirst, and in its most common forms does not readily intoxicate. Unfortunately for Carolinians, cheap fermented liquors do not suit

with their climate, especially in the summer when they are most wanted. Recourse is generally had to spirituous liquors; medical theories are made to bend to appetite. Accommodating professional men by their example and advice, recommend it as a corrector of the water. Such opinions are readily received and acted upon. The general position being once admitted that the addition of rum, gin, brandy, or whiskey, is an improvement of water, it is no easy matter to stop at the precise point of temperance. The reasoning powers are so far the dupes of sense, that a little more and a little stronger is taken without hesitation. Thirst makes the first drink a plentiful one; a few supplementary draughts complete the business of intoxication, and induce an oblivion of all cares. A repetition of the pleasing delusion takes place; an habit of inebriety is insensibly formed. To resist a growing fondness for liquor in its first stage is possible, but it requires much fortitude and perseverance. When the habit is completely formed, reason is dethroned; the reins are surrendered to appetite, and the unhappy man is hurried on from bad to worse, till he becomes a nuisance in society.

All these temptations to intoxication are increased by idleness. Men are so constituted as to be incapable of total stagnation. Something to stimulate the senses, employ the body or occupy the mind, is a matter of absolute necessity. He whose vacant mind cannot amuse itself with reading, reasoning, reflecting, or the reveries of imagination; whose inclination disrelishes and whose circumstances elevate him above bodily labor, has only one avenue left to save himself from the painful sensations of being without any employment for mind or body; that is, to rouse his senses by the poignancy of something that acts directly and strongly upon them. This may be done by tobacco, opium, and some other irritating substances, but by nothing so readily or so conveniently as by ardent spirits. The draught which at first excited the senses, soon becomes inadequate. The quantity must therefore be increased. A pernicious habit is thus insensibly formed from having nothing to do.

The hard laboring man is assailed by temptations of a different nature. Labor in warm weather excites great thirst. The attending depression of spirits is supposed to require something cordial. The quantity of water which nature requires, dashed with only a common portion of ardent spirits, makes in the whole too much of the latter for health or comfort. Habits of intoxication in this manner grow on persons of this description, while they are without any apprehensions of their transgressing the rules of temperance. Thus a considerable proportion of the laborers who take up their abode in Caro-

lina, either lose their healths or their lives in the course of a few years. Dropsies, complaints of the liver, dyspepsia, or bad digestion close the scene with people of this description.

To these may be added the gentlemen who spend their afternoons and evenings over their wine. By the help of semi-annual fits of the gout they sometimes make out to live for several years, though they seldom go to bed sober. Their habits are expensive, destructive of time, and inconsistent with close application to business; but their lives are not so directly and immediately threatened as in the case of those who in shorter spaces drink equal quantities of spirituous liquors.

Perplexity, from debt and other embarrassments or troubles, is in Carolina a common cause of inebriation. This state of mind produces a physical effect which resembles the pressure of a bar across the breast. To remove that sensation, and to drown care, recourse is had to the oblivious draught. Being often repeated, it disqualifies the sufferer from manly exertions to extricate himself. Instead of more industry and economy, it too often happens that more ardent spirits are taken till the case becomes hopeless.

The too early introduction of young lads into company has an unhappy effect on their habits. They need not the stimulus of strong drink, and are often indifferent and sometimes averse to it; but when fashion leads the way, they have not fortitude enough to made a stand. They are apt to prefer social folly to singular wisdom. To be occasionally drunk in good company, is considered by their young companions as a proof of spirit. As duels are sometimes fought against the grain in compliance with custom, so habits of intoxication are contracted by young men, not from any self-indulgence in the beginniug, but merely to please other people. When once contracted they are rarely laid aside. The good-natured, pleasant, accommodating youth, dies a sot before he attains to middle age.

When all the preceding classes are taken into view, the number of strictly temperate people is far short of what is generally supposed. On this subject medical men have much better opportunities of information than others. Let him that stands, take heed lest he fall; for the temptations to drunkenness are so great and so common, as partly resulting from the climate, that great self-command, prudence and fortitude, and a strict discipline of the passions and appetites, are absolutely necessary to maintain the empire of reason over sense.

A disposition to contract debts is one of the vices of Carolinians. To this several local causes contribute. Agriculture is the employment of most, and is the original source of their wealth. As crops are annual, out-goings must precede in-

comings. To limit the former to means in hands would greatly curtail the latter. Agriculture must be carried on by most planters partly on credit or carried on to little purpose. From the state of the country many annual debts are unavoidably contracted, and from the uncertainty of crops in a hazardous climate, subject to storms, freshets and hurricanes, must often remain unpaid at least for the ensuing season. When everything is prosperous the profits are great. One crop will often purchase the fee simple of the land on which it is made. Two, three, or four, will in like manner pay for the negroes who make it. These are strong inducements to give and to take credit. In successful seasons neither the merchant nor the planter are disappointed. But a melancholy reverse often takes place: unseasonable frosts, insects, freshets, defects or excess of rain, and several other incidents, prevent the growth or maturation of the commodities of the country. When the crop is made and ready to be gathered, storms often, and hurricanes sometimes, in a few hours blast the labors of a year. When all is housed, circumstances both at home and abroad, beyond the control of the planters, frequently arise to reduce the price of country produce, and sometimes entirely to obstruct its sale. Planting in Carolina is like an annual lottery, in which, on an average of several years, there are many blanks and many prizes. A few of the latter are very large, but the greatest number do not much exceed the price of the ticket. In the great chain of credit the planter forms the first link. When his crop fails, the failure involves multitudes in unavoidable breaches of contract, though they have no immediate connection with agriculture.

If rational prospects of crops were the only foundation of credit the debts of individuals would be far short of what they generally are. To these must be added an immense sum founded on speculation. In Carolina, where the price of marketable articles is as variable as the weather, a boundless field is opened to exercise the ingenuity of men, who, from an exact knowledge of the present state of things and an attentive retrospect of the past, can form shrewd conjectures of the future rise and fall of the market. Such men are called speculators. By lucky guesses a few of them make estates; but many others, less fortunate, not only lose what they possessed but involve innocent creditors in their speculations. The transition from riches to poverty, from good credit to insolvency, is sometimes rapid. In other cases it is slow, but the more slow the more extensive is the ultimate crash. Where there are banks and money lenders an artificial credit may be supported for some time. The affairs of the declining debtor are known to none but himself, and even he, from self-love

and sanguine hopes is often deceived. In the meantime others, misled by appearances, continue to trust him; while his substance is wasting away between usurers and brokers, lawyers and sheriffs.

The contiguity of the West India islands to Charlestown affords temptations to many mercantile adventurers; which, as they may be commenced without solid capital, frequently prove ruinous to those concerned. The voyage is often begun and ended within sixty days, and the cargo furnished on the credit of a note for that period. When the speculation succeeds all is well. It pays expenses and yields a handsome profit; but orders or decrees from European sovereigns, storms, tempests and sudden changes, in the market price of commodities, not unfrequently blast the fairest prospects; and suddenly substitute a heavy load of debt and sometimes complete ruin, where immense profits were in a train of being realized.

Securityship is another source of debt. Bondsmen are required by the State from most of its public officers, and frequently from private purchasers of property. A few years often make a material alteration both in the circumstances and character of the principal, which is neither known nor suspected by his security. A safe act is at first contemplated, but time or unforeseen circumstances make it the reverse, and involve an innocent man in the misfortunes of his friend. The great advance in the price of articles sold on long credit induces sellers to prefer that mode of selling; and the profits made by purchasers occasionally exceeding the usual rate of interest induce purchasers to take the bait. This sometimes proves harmless, but often injurious both to them and their securities.

Speculators are the readiest to be extensively involved in the toils of debt; but the most cautious are sometimes unavoidably entangled. There are few countries in the world where the expenses of living, especially in a tolerably decent style, are higher than in Charlestown. In such a place even a temporary failure of business produces serious consequences. With many the profits and the labors of the day supply its wants. Though the first, from sickness or other causes, should fail the latter go on and can only be supplied by credit. In this manner cautious honest men are sometimes involved. Debt, like a millstone, weighs them down so that their future extrication is always difficult and often impracticable. The plain furniture of a decent house, for the accommodation of a new married pair bought on credit, sometimes involves embarrassments which last for years. So many debts are contracted from these various sources that few individuals are clear of

them. Unembarrassed estates are rare, and their real value is seldom known till their owners die; especially where mutual credits are given and accounts remain for years, as is too often the case, without a final settlement. The banks have introduced a germ of punctuality among that class of people who do business with them; but these are not one in fifty of the whole inhabitants. He that commences business of any kind, with the means and the inclination to give general credit, must be both cautious and fortunate or he will lose, not only profits, but capital. His customers will be numerous; but their payments will be so tardy, irregular, and so often withheld, that no dependence can be placed on them. On these subjects a reform is beginning to take place. The necessity and advantages of punctuality are more generally known, and its votaries increase. Credit is oftener withheld, or more cautiously given, than formerly. The necessity for it in agriculture has given it a currency in other cases, and has carried it so far as to make debt very common, and punctual payments very rare.

Insolvent debtors enjoy some peculiar privileges in Carolina. When taken into custody, if they give security for their keeping within prescribed bounds, they are indulged with ample limits, comprehending in Charlestown a space equal to two or three squares. On petition and a surrender of all their property to their creditors they may, after ten days notice, regain their liberty. To prevent this catastrophe some make equivalent private surrenders to trustees for the benefit of their creditors. In the first case they are discharged from the claims of all creditors who have sued. In the latter from all who accept of the terms of assignment. There is no bankrupt law in Carolina, nor any that bars a creditor who has neither sued nor compromised with the debtor from demandimg payment from his future earnings. When this catastrophe takes place new measures are generally adopted. The failing merchant commences broker. The planter, whose property is taken from him, becomes manager for some of his more fortunate agricultural acquaintances. In both cases they recommence business with a stock of experience that may be of immense service in their future operations. By the aid of industry and sobriety they may do well and retrieve what they have lost; but if they are so far broken down with their misfortunes as to give themselves up to habits of indolence and intoxication they are gone for ever; and the sooner they die the better it is likely to fare with their families. If the property should be kept together during the life of its embarrassed possessor, when he dies new scenes open. The whole amount of debts and credits is then brought to view. The

estate is found to be insolvent, to the surprise of many, and especially of the unsuspecting widow. All her energy becomes immediately necessary for her helpless family. In such extremities the female character in Carolina has shown with peculiar lustre. Two obvious and common resources are open to the surviving parent. She may keep a lodging-house, or open a school. In these or some other modes of making a livelihood widows engage, and often with surprising success. Steady to their purpose they pursue the present object without being drawn aside by splendid probabilities of remote advantages. By their judicious management estates have been retrieved, families raised; sons and daughters, knowing that their prospects of paternal fortune are cut off, are educated strictly, and early taught to depend on their own exertions for their future maintenance and advancement. From a mother's care they rise, by the fall of their father's, and are presented to their country fortified with virtuous habits and honorable principles. Such have been the consequences, both good and bad, of the disposition to contract debt which abounds in the State.

A warm, moist unelastic air fosters habits of indolence. The mountaineer delights in action; but repose has peculiar charms for the inhabitant of the plain. In Carolina there are inhabitants and portions of the State embracing both descriptions. The common custom of making almost daily long sittings at meals, and smoking segars, co-operate with the climate in diminishing incitements to activity and energy of character. There is a painful vacuum in the life of an unemployed man, doubtless designed by Providence to stimulate him to industry. These kind intentions are frustrated by substituting useless, frivolous amusements in place of serious business. The long protracted pleasures of the table, fascinate, beguile time, and make immense deductions from that portion of it which the calls of families and society require for interesting purposes. The dryness of the mouth, caused by smoking, excites an articial thirst and that demands repeated supplies of liquid. Water is insipid and cannot be relished after the stimulating poignancy of tobacco. Something spirituous must be added. That disinclination to labor which flows from the state of the atmosphere is increased. When all the powers of human nature should be put in requisition to counteract the influence of climate, auxiliaries are called in to augment its baneful tendency. A chain of causes, all tending to mischief, is formed. A waste of time, idleness and intemperance result from late sittings and long smokings, and all concur to expend the energies of man; born for nobler purposes. Of the many customs which are deemed harmless in Carolina, none are

eventually more injurious and at the same time less suspected than these which have occasioned the preceding remarks.

To encourage the raising and improving the breed of good horses, a race course was in the year 1754 established by private subscription about a mile from Charlestown. Very few blooded horses had been previously imported; but after course-racing was introduced, great numbers of well bred running horses and mares were brought from England. Every planter raised yearly one or more colts. In a short time no part of America, except Virginia, could produce so many fine horses, either for the course, saddle or draught, as South Carolina. This state of things continued till the revolutionary war, and furnished excellent horses both for the British and American cavalry. It has been renewed since the peace of 1783, but not urged with the same zeal as before. The culture of cotton engrosses the Carolinians, and they now purchase many of their horses from the inhabitants of Kentucky, Tennessee and other States who raise them at little expense. Before the year 1754 the best horses for the draught or saddle in Carolina were called the Chickesaw breed. These were originally introduced by the Spaniards into Florida, and in the course of time had astonishingly increased. Great numbers ranged wild in and near the Apalache old field. Many of them were caught and tamed by the Indians, and sold to the traders. They made use of them for pack horses to bring their peltry to market, and afterwards sold them in the low country. These horses in general were handsome, active and hardy, but small; seldom exceeding thirteen hands and a half in height. The mares in particular, when crossed with English blooded horses, produced colts of great beauty, strength and swiftness. Before the year 1754 these Chickesaw horses were the favorite breed. Since that period a much better one has been introduced. After course-racing was established, it was one of the most fashionable diversions, and drew from all parts of the province and State to Charlestown, a greater number of spectators than any other amusement or business whatever. Far from being confined to the capital, it extended over the province. It excited and continues to excite among the people a great and lively interest. The jockey club is numerous and comprehends a great proportion of the gentlemen near Charlestown. The periodical races in the month of February form an annual epoch inferior only to the 4th of July. For two or three hours before their commencement the road leading to the course is so crowded that access to the city is very difficult. While the race is pending, and for sometime before and after, a solemn stillness reigns through-

out the streets. These are for the most part deserted, and Charlestown is transferred to the race ground. When the contest commences, almost every spectator takes part with one or the other of the horses contending for the foremost place. The moment that point is settled the rattling of cash is heard in all directions. Thousands are lost or won in a moment. The same scene is repeated and the same tumult of the passions is roused for four successive days. On the evening of the last but one, a ball is given by the jockey club in the style of republicans. The bustle is gradually composed. The planters and factors make a convenience of their meeting to effect a settlement of accounts, and both by degrees resume the accustomed habits of tranquil life.

Hunting, both as a business and a diversion, has always been useful and fashionable in Carolina. It contributed essentially to the support of the first settlers, and considerably to that of their successors in every period. It has also furnished the most valuable materials for the early commerce of the country, and has ever since added to the list of its exports. The same arts which were daily employed by the inhabitants in hunting, taught them to be expert, and always ready to defend themselves against enemies. The country, at its first settlement, was one continued forest abounding with wild beasts. To destroy them was both pleasant and profitable. This disposition has descended from father to son through the five or six generations which have intervened between the first and present settlers. To the inhabitants of cities it is matter of astonishment with what ease they who reside in the country can force their way at full speed through the thickest recesses of the forest. Impediments apparently insurmountable are readily got over. Dangers that seem to threaten life and limb—to tear riders from their horses, or horses from them, are escaped without injury. Hunting in some respects is war in miniature. The votaries of the one are in a good school of preparation for the other. This was amply experienced in the course of the American revolution. When Charlestown yielded to the conquerors in 1780, the contest was re-commenced by the huntsmen of the country under the auspices of their gallant leaders Sumpter and Marion. The same arts, arms and equipments which had been used against wild beasts, were successfully employed against the invaders, and made all their movements in a woody country extremely dangerous. At present game affords the only trophies of hunters. In pursuing it they take great delight. Children are taught by their example, and early equipped for the chase with a dog, a gun, and a horse. Boys not more than ten years old can show with pride the deer they have killed.

Exulting in their prowess they give an earnest of what they can do if their country should call for their services.

Hunting is a social diversion and is carried on by clubs. One of these exists in almost every district, especially in the low country. They meet once a month or fortnight, and the members by turns provide a dinner in a plain building erected for the purpose in some convenient central part, and called the club-house. They meet early in the day with their hounds, horses and guns. Such as choose to take an active part in the sport, sally out in the rear of their dogs. As soon as a deer is discovered, the hounds in full cry commence the chase. The woods re-echo with sounds more exhilarating to the party than any musical instrument. The hunters pursue. From their knowledge of the country and the habits of the deer, they know the precise course that will be taken. They gallop through the woods with a swiftness sometimes exceeding that of the dogs and the deer. They take different stands, but all ahead of the game, and in the course which they know he will take. As soon as the deer appears within gun shot, he is leveled at by the hunters in succession; but most of them are such dexterous marksmen that he hardly ever escapes, and is often laid low by the first or second fire. Instances not unfrequently occur where the shot takes effect, though discharged when the shooter and the stricken deer are both in motion; and the latter at full speed. The hunt seldom fails of success. When it is over, the parties return to the club-house with keen appetites and partake of the dinner provided for them in the woods. The remainder of the day is spent sociably. In the evening they divide the spoil and return home. The members die, but the clubs are immortal; so far that a constant succession is kept up, and has been so for near half a century and bids fair to continue. The sons take the place of their fathers, and two or three generations in succession have hunted over the same ground. Any decent stranger coming to reside in the district, if he chooses, is proposed as a member and rarely rejected. Any such person being accidentally in the neighborhood or even traveling by is invited to visit the club. If agreeable to him, he is furnished with equipments and partakes of the sport as well as of the feast. Politeness and hospitality are incorporated with these social clubs. Good humor and good neighborhood are promoted by them, and they furnish excellent marksmen when wanted for the service of their country. The violence of the exercise is sometimes injurious. Disasters of a serious nature from accident or mistake occasionally take place. The cravings for food and drink, highly excited by the chase, are not always satisfied without subsequent irregularities; but such occurrences are rare.

Dancing was always a favorite diversion among the Carolinians; in it the young people excel. To acquire that ease and elegance which results from it, much time is spent and considerable expense incurred. It is regarded more as a means than an end, and is prized as a social salutary exercise contributing to self-possession and the perfect command of one's limbs. These ends being obtained, the means by which they were acquired are dropped. The sprightly girl becomes a sober wife, and after some years, with a few exceptions, seldom exercises beyond her domestic circle the art to which she is greatly indebted for her graceful movements

To music also great attention is paid, but not with equal success. To excel in this accomplishment requires not only a natural talent, but sedulous attention and long practice. There are many in Carolina, who, possessing all these advantages, arrive at distinguished eminence, but more, who after spending considerable sums of money, scarcely exceed mediocrity, and soon forget the smattering they had previously acquired.

In addition to the amusements already described, ball-playing and rifle-shooting are added in the country. Through the interior parts of the State, ball-alleys are common and much frequented by young men. Of rifle-shooting they are also very fond. Instead of articles being sold at public auction they are often shot for at a small price each shot; the most expert marksman has the first choice; they generally shoot at a mark about the size of a dollar. He who does not strike the center of it or its vicinity comes in for no part of the prize. It is common to give notice that on a certain day a beef is to be shot for, and that the best shot shall have the first choice of any piece of the carcass. It sometimes happens that two or three win the whole; for though there have been twenty or thirty competitors, and all have hit the mark, yet as they did not strike its center they have no share in the prize. By such practices the inhabitants are trained to feats in shooting which will with difficulty be believed by the inhabitants of cities. A good rifleman with a fair shot seldom misses a deer or a wild turkey at the distance of 150 yards, and is often equally successful in hitting either of them though in full speed.

DRESS.

There is no standard for dress in Carolina. The models of it are not originally American, but are copied from the fashions of London and Paris. Milliners and tailors have more influence in regulating it than the court at Washington. These keep up a regular correspondence with Europe, and import new dresses to Charlestown as soon as they are intro-

duced in the capital of France or England. The ladies of Carolina dress with taste, but approximate nearer to the French than English style. They often improve on imported fashions, but few of them have resolution enough to follow their own correct ideas in originating dresses entirely new without any reference to French or English models. The gentlemen are partial to blue, the product of their staple indigo, and most of them have at all times at least one coat of that color. About the year 1800, pantaloons, which had been fashionable in England some centuries past, were generally worn in Carolina, but in the lapse of the eight years which followed, they are generally laid aside and breeches are again in common use; the former are much more suitable to the climate than the latter, but considerations of this value will not have their proper weight till the country becomes original and independent in the modes of dress as it is in matters of more consequence. The climate requires that suspenders, deep crowned hats with double bottoms, as well as loose flowing pantaloons, should be continued, but it rests with the fashion-makers in Europe to determine how long they shall be used in Carolina.

COMPLEXION.

Of this nothing further can be said than that it inclines to a greater degree of sallowness than is common in more northern latitudes. The climate is too variable and too subject to piercing winds and the extremes of heat and cold, especially the former, for the general production of that exquisite mixture of white and red which constitutes the highest grade of beauty. Nevertheless many of the inhabitants who live on healthy situations, enjoy the comforts of life in moderation, and are in such circumstances that they can guard their persons from the rude assaults of the wind and weather, approximate to this most lovely and desirable complexion. On the other hand, the poor who live on mean fare, neglect personal cleanliness, are obliged to buffet with the winds and sun, and especially if they inhabit swamps, have their neglected yearly fevers, and their annually increasing spleens, and at the same time are intemperate, their complexions are disgusting. These two extremes diverge from each other like the complexions of people who inhabit different zones. Between them there are grades of approximation to both which increase or diminish with circumstances.

MANNERS AND CHARACTER.

A propensity to indolence is common in Carolina as in other warm countries and seasons. The exceptions to it are comparatively few. The Carolinians are not easily roused;

when roused they are active and ardent but not persevering. These particularities are in some degree connected with a variable climate, vibrating between the extremes of heat and cold, and suddenly passing from one to the other. They are irritable in their tempers, have a very high sense of honor, and are disposed to guard it at every hazard.

The female character appears to great advantage in Carolina. The women are generally well educated. Several of them have highly cultivated minds and refined manners. The name of the family always depends on the sons; but its respectability, comfort, and domestic happiness, often on the daughters. While young they enter into amusements with the vivacity natural to their age; but this vivacity is in general so well tempered by sweetness of disposition, and discretion, as leaves little room for anxiety to their parents with regard to their future conduct. No pursuit of pleasure interferes with duty to a father, or affectionate attention to a brother; so that the happiness as well as cheerfulness of a family is increased in proportion to the number of daughters. When they become wives and mothers they are devoted to their families—they regard their husband's friends and relations as their own. They follow no amusement incompatible with their new duty, but seek to "make well ordered home man's best delight:" nor are there wanting examples of those who, remaining single, perform admirably well the duties of daughters, sisters, and friends, and have been eminently useful in assisting to train up and educate their younger connections. They are capable of enjoying prosperity with zest, and of bearing adversity with dignity. Their virtues were put to a severe trial in the American revolution, and the result was highly in their favor. They bore not only with fortitude but cheerfulness every privation, and submitted to every hardship which the most self-denying patriotism could require from them. When the war was ended and their husbands and fathers were by its ravages reduced in their circumstances, they aided by their economy and retirement from the world to repair the losses. It is not only on such great events they display their magnanimity and energy of character. Occasions too often occur in common life requiring similar exertions. In Carolina, where sickness and health, poverty and riches, frequently alternate in rapid succession, wives and daughters bear incredible fatigues and privations with exemplary fortitude, and conform to existing circumstances with becoming dignity and accommodating propriety. When they are left widows, though with small means, large families, and great embarrassments, they, in many cases, extricate the estate with wonderful address and devote themselves to the educa-

tion of their children. Speculating, intemperate, mismanaging husbands advance their families by dying and leaving to their widows the sole management of their embarrassed fortunes. In the lower grades of life, where there are no fortunes to repair, the industry and economy of the wife produces similar results eminently conducive to the advancement of the common interest.

The state of society in Carolina is such that the subdivisions usual in other countries do not apply to its inhabitants. The relation of master and servant scarcely exists among the white people—that of landlord and tenant is also very rare, especially in the country. Domestic service is performed for the rich by slaves—for the poor by themselves. The valuable land is chiefly engrossed by the wealthy, and generally cultivated by the slaves of its owners. The poor land has been of so little account that it seldom commanded any rent that was worth acceptance. The fee-simple of it might be purchased so low that industrious tenants soon became freeholders. The subdivision of the inhabitants which applies best to Carolina is the fourfold one of planters, farmers, cottagers, and squatters: each of these has an appropriate character. The planters have large incomes—live at their ease—enjoy much—suffer little—are high minded, and possess much of that dignity of character which constitutes an independent country gentleman—but seldom engage in arduous pursuits to the accomplishment of which much time, patience, and long continued exertions of mind or body are necessary—or if they engage in them, rarely persevere till the object is fully attained. The virtues of the farmers are less brilliant, but their vices are fewer than those of the planters. They are more active—depend more on their own exertions—are content with less—are more able to bear the frowns of fortune, and have greater internal resources to meet extraordinary emergencies. They own few or no slaves. In the former case, labor is performed jointly by whites and blacks; and the laborers of both colors are separated by very few lines of distinction. Cottagers hitherto have been in a state of depression. Having no slaves of their own—unwilling to work with those of other people, and unable to procure the place of overseers, many of them had no resource left but to engage in some slight business which did not afford suitable constant employment. Without the incitement of profitable industry to stimulate their exertions, they seldom extended their labors beyond the point which would supply their daily wants in the plainest style of living. Much idleness and consequently vice was attached to their character. The necessaries of life are so easily obtained in Carolina that the man who aims at

nothing more than a bare subsistence, must be often so far unemployed as to have ample leisure for the perpetration of wickedness. Such was the former character of many belonging to this class. A considerable change for the better has lately taken place. To these people the culture of cotton holds out strong inducements to personal industry. It rewards their labors with a large share of the comforts of life without the degradation which must have often attached to them while laboring, not for themselves but as appendages to planters or large farmers and as fellow-laborers with their slaves. They now work their own lands—raise provisions and cotton with the help of their children, and daily acquire consequence in society. The lowest grade of people, called squatters, have been at all times nuisances. Settling on any man's land—paying no rent—cultivating very little or no ground; they lived by their guns ostensibly in hunting, but often in shooting down the domestic animals of their industrious neighbors. In the vast tracts of poor land with which Carolina abounds, these people could easily make temporary settlements. These served as centres, from which they made excursions and to which they brought both their game and their booty. In sundry places into which the Methodists have penetrated, they have had influence on many of this class so far as to induce them to engage in regular active industry. In these circumstances the number of squatters has diminished—of industrious cottagers or farmers increased. To such the long neglected pine woods of Carolina offer settlements which many of them have embraced, and on which they are likely to receive the rewards of their reformation.

FECUNDITY, POPULATION AND LONGEVITY.

Mrs. Easely, of Greenville district, now living, has been the mother of thirty-four live born children, though she never had twins but once. From sixteen to twenty-two have been brought alive into the world by individual mothers in the low country; but these instances are rare. A case or two is known where the same parents have raised and married thirteen children. From six to nine children are often raised in the western districts. Twelve is the largest number of children now living from one pair in Charlestown, and only two such can be recollected; but there are several who have from eight to eleven alive, and many from four to seven. Some women have been mothers at fifteen, and a few grand-mothers at thirty. The number of children born is great; but the deaths in infancy are also great, though considerably less than was usual forty years ago.

The first regular census of the inhabitants was taken in

1790, when the whole number of every description amounted to 249,073. A second census was taken in 1800, amounting to 345,591, an increase of nearly 4 per cent. per annum, or 96,518 in a period of ten years. In the last census the sexes approached nearer to an equality of number than is usual. for the difference in the sum total of their respective numbers was only 5,577 or nearly twenty males to nineteen females, though the usual proportion is thirteen or fourteen of the former to twelve or thirteen of the latter. It is further remarkable, that there is an excess of 384 females between the ages of sixteen and twenty-six over males of corresponding ages; though in all the other periods of human life noticed in the census the excess is on the side of the males. It appears that the relative excess of males is constantly lessening till the age of sixteen, when the difference in point of numbers is only 299 in favor of the males. Between the age of sixteen and twenty-six this small excess of males is lost, and the balance is on the other side; for in that class there is an excess of 384 females.*

Carolina has not been settled long enough to furnish data for making calculations on the longevity of its inhabitants. Some are still living who were born within thirty years after the first settlement, and when the whole population did not exceed seven thousand. The middle country was settled about 1736, and the upper country about 1751. In both some of the first natives are still alive, and several of the emigrants are much older than these settlements. The extent of the longevity to which the natives of these more healthy parts may attain, cannot be ascertained for forty, fifty, or sixty years to come. Many natives of the low country live to sixty with their faculties entire; several live to seventy, a few survive from eighty to eighty-nine, beyond which no native but one, as far as can be recollected, has been known to live who made the low country his or her ordinary residence. Some emigrants from Germany, France, Ireland, Scotland, England and the northern States have survived their 100th year, and a few their 110th.† Their ages at the time of their arrival cannot always be ascertained; but in general it has been found to be

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*It is probable that about the age of twenty-one the number of both sexes is equal, or nearly so; for five years after that period there is an excess of 384 females; and five years before it, of 299 males. If the enumerations in the census are correct, and the conclusion drawn from analogy and average is just, it follows, that in case marriages universally took place between the citizens of the State at the age of twenty-one, or between twenty-one and twenty-two on both sides, there would not be an unmarried person, either male or female, of that age in South Carolina.

†Satisfactory evidence can be produced that at least one negro born in Carolina has approached to the age of 120. Several of them live to great ages, but the precise number of years is seldom known.

oftener under forty than above it. In some cases their residence in Carolina is known to have exceeded seventy years. The natives of lower Carolina who arrive at old age are few, and that portion of the State cannot in general be called healthy; but the climate is not the greatest enemy to the ongevity of its inhabitants. Intemperance, particularly the immoderate use of ardent spirits, is a much greater one. It makes young men old before they reach their thirtieth year, and brings them with all the infirmities and decrepitude of age to premature graves, when, under other circumstances, they would have been in the prime of life and usefulness. Few are sots before they are twenty, and very few of that description reach fifty. Death from intemperance between these two periods diminishes the candidates for the honors of old age, and increases the number of widows and orphans much faster, and to a greater extent, than the climate alone would have done. The latter in the most sickly spots is not inimical to health for more than four months out of twelve, but the former continues its destructive ravages all the year round.

There are now living in South Carolina.

	AGED.
Mrs. Jackson, a widow lady at the high hills of Santee, near Captain Singleton's, a native of Virginia	110
Mary Miller, a native of Germany, has resided near Orangeburg 80 years	110
Peter Carson, near Greenville Court House	107
Benjamin Busby, in Edgefield	104
Swore to his age 103, some time ago, to be excused from duty as a juryman	
Frederic Hooevr, near Orangeburgh	102
Rose Maples, 17 miles from Statesburgh	102
Mary James, from Maryland, 70 years resident near Statesburgh	102
William Atwood, in Abbeville, married for the first time at 65, and has since had nine children	100
Mrs. Elizabeth Lennox, in St. Bartholomew's	100
John Windall Hallman, Lexington	98
Thomas Lee, a resident in Abbeville for forty years	97
Mrs. Ellis, in Newberry	95
Mrs. Lane, near Statesburgh, who on Sunday walks ten miles to Church attended by her descendants to the fifth generation	95
Mrs. Walter, near Dorchester	93
Mr. and Mrs. Nettles, ten miles from Statesburgh, were born in Virginia in the same month of the same year, have been married 72 years, have 134 descendants, are healthy, cheerful, and good humored, have resided in Carolina 30 years, each of them is	92
Mrs. Mary Ernst, born in Germany, a resident in Charlestown, 66 years	92
Mrs. Dorothy Boomer has resided in Charlestown 71 years	91
Amos Tims, 83, and his wife	91
This couple have been married 66 years, and are exemplary for their piety, their warm and uninterrupted affection.	
Nelly Snyder, in Lexington; this woman has had ten husbands	90
Mary Keller, a resident for 57 years, near Orangeburgh	90
Mrs. Linguard, of Charlestown	90
Mr. Hughes, in Newberry, rides 14 miles to Church	90
Mr. James Kelly, born in Ireland, resident for 30 years in Prince Williams	89
Elizabeth Henry, of Charlestown, born in Ireland	86
Mrs. Lance, of Charlestown	83

AGED.

Mrs. Boldric, a native of Ireland, 50 years resident in or near St. Mathew's Parish, in perfect health until the year 1807, when her constitution received a shock from the influenza; or, as stated by herself, from the timidity of a young practitioner, who counted her years instead of her pulse, refused to bleed her, or lend his lancet that she might bleed herself. She still carefully attends to her domestic concerns, and performs journeys to Charlestown 85

Mr. James Hemmingen, of Abbeville, born in Scotland 85

Mr. John Lewis Wingtxen, of Charlestown, born in Germany 85

Mrs. Mary Smyser, born in Germany, resident in Charlestown 67 years 84

*Mrs. Roupell, of Charlestown 84

Sebastian Spinler, born in Switzerland, has lived 57 years in Charlestown ... 81

Mr. John Horlbeck, born in Saxony, has lived in Charlestown 44 years, and never took a dose of medicine 80

Mr. De Tollinere, a native of Nantz, has lived in Carolina, 35 years, and for several years, at all seasons, in St. John's. He rides on horseback, leaps over fences, and dances with the agility of youth 80

*Mrs. Sarah Smith, a descendant of Governor Moore, has had 110 descendants, of whom 62 are alive, and all of whom were born and lived in or near Charlestown. She has the perfect use of all her senses, reads and works without spectacles, is cheerful, conversable, and superintends with care and diligence the concerns of a large household 80

DIED IN SOUTH CAROLINA SINCE 1797.

Mr. Neighbours, of Laurens, died in 1798 114

His Wife 109

Both Pennsylvanians, and had been married 80 years. Mrs. Neighbours, when 105, broke her thigh in three places, which healed very kindly.

Mrs. Newby, in Laurens 112

Mrs. Minnich, near Edisto river 108

James Jaquet, a native of Switzerland, a resident in St. James, Santee, for 60 years 105

Margaret Dickson, in Abbeville 104

Andrew Rumny, of Sandy Run, Lexington 103

Patrick Smith, born in Ireland, a resident in Carolina for 50 years, died in Fairfield, 1808 103

Rev. Jeremiah Ream, a preacher after he was 90 years old, in Sumpter district 100

Mrs. Sheely 95

*Elizabeth Jenkins 94

Abraham Jones 94

Peter Dickert, born in Germany 93

Mrs. Morgan 91

Mrs. Paxton 91

Mrs. Hopton, a native of England, 70 years resident in Charlestown, except the loss of sight, from a particular circumstance, retained the use of her senses, and the exercise of her intellectual powers, which were uncommonly vigorous till within two or three years of her death 90

Thomas Sykes, a native of Ireland 90

Mrs. Sarah White, born in Ireland, had upwards of 100 descendants. After a residence of 40 years in the wax-haws, died in 1806 98

*Mrs. Ann Anderson, of Charlestown 89

*Miss Mary Bacot, of Charlestown 89

Peter Buyck 87

*Zachariah Villepontoux 87

Mrs. Haynesworth, high hills of Santee 87

Mrs. M'Kewn, Dorchester 87

William Ancrem, after a residence of 60 years in Charlestown 86

*Stephen Mazyck, of Goose Creek, South Carolina 85

Anna Barbara Dreher, of Charlestown, born in Germany 85

Ursula Grabenstein, born in Germany 85

Mrs. Austin, born in Virginia, was the mother of 21 children, nearly all of whom lived to maturity, was healthy and strong through life, after a residence of 45 years in Fairfield, died in 1802 84

	AGED.
Mrs. Williams, of Charlestown, was a grand-mother at 30	84
*General Gadsden, Ralph Atmore, *Theodore Trezevant, *Eliz. Rivers, Margaret Buckle, *Mary Barnwell, Christiana Dawson, Emanuel Abrahams, *Ann Gray, Mary Tucker, *Catharine Cordes, Sarah Jones, *Sarah Butler, Ann Morgan, *Margaret Young, Margaret Woolf, *Rachael Caw, Mrs. Ballantine, several of whom were above, but all had reached	80

THE FOLLOWING PERSONS DIED BEFORE 1797.

Thomas Farling, was at the battle of the Boyne, and died in 1756, at Beaufort	96
Peter Dickert, born in Germany	93
Solomon Legare, born in France	87
His daughter *Mary Ellis	81
His son *Daniel Legare	81
Colonel Othniel Beale	85
Richard Dale Beaufort	84
Rev. William Screven, ancestor of the numerous and respectable families of that name in Carolina and Georgia, founder of Georgetown, and of the Baptist Churches in South Carolina, after a residence of about 40 years, died in 1713	84
*Damaris Elizabeth Ravenel	83
Elizabeth Ralsteisen, born in Germany	82
Elias Ball, born in Devonshire, England, lived in the country and had never been sick	82
George Brownell, mentioned with respect by Doctor Franklin, as his teacher, many years a respectable teacher in Carolina	82

☞ The persons to whose name * is prefixed, were natives of, and generally residents in or near Charlestown. Several more might be added who are known to have attained the age of 80; and many pages might have been filled with the names of persons who had approached to or exceeded 70.

CIVIL HISTORY OF SOUTH CAROLINA,

From the Termination of the Revolutionary War in 1783 *to the year* 1808.

CHAPTER XI.

The unexpected but successful struggle for independence unsettled everything. To bring order out of confusion was no easy matter. In the course of the revolution many things were done on the principle of sacrificing minor objects to the public safety, which admit of no justification and can only be palliated by the plea of necessity. The prohibition of all exportation from the country was a measure early enjoined by authority, and enforced by sound policy. This brought after it an obstruction of the regular course of justice; for hard would have been the fate of planters to be compelled to pay their debts when their country forbade the sale of their crops. The commencement of hostilities required that troops should

be raised, and that imposed a necessity of emitting bills of credit for their maintenance. To support the credit of these bills, they were made a tender in payment of debts. As they were emitted without solid funds for their redemption, they progressively depreciated. Many contracts made at different periods, payable in these bills, were yet to be fulfilled. Many debts contracted prior to the war, were wholly and others partially cancelled by these bills. When the war was ended, and real money introduced, to do justice in every case between debtor and creditor was impossible. It was necessary for the Legislature to fix some rule. This occupied their attention at their first meeting after the evacuation of Charlestown. As the least of all possible evils, they agreed on a scale of depreciation which fixed the value of the paper bills at different periods in a relative proportion to the commodities of the country, compared with their prices anterior to the revolution. This scale began in April, 1777, at £108 10s. for £100, and ended May 10th, 1780, at £5,248 for £100, and credits were accordingly to be given for payments on all subsisting contracts. Where the contract no longer subsisted, and the evidence of the debt has been destroyed on the receipt of nominal payment in depreciated bills, no redress could be obtained. This produced great inequality and injustice. No remedy in the power of the Legislature could be applied on a general scale without producing greater injustice than it was intended to obviate.* The evils resulting from depreciation, and the best though partial, rule of the Legislature for lessening them, were soon followed by others of greater magnitude. The

*An interesting debate on this subject for some time occupied the public mind. It was discussed with great animation, both in the newspapers and in the Legislature. By one party it was contended that the scale of depreciation should be applied to all debts, as well as those which were cancelled by full payment, as those which being wholly unpaid or only partially paid off still subsisted. The monied and the landed interest took opposite sides, and some were doubtless influenced by private interest. Abstract justice favored the one, and political expedience the other. The moderate and impartial were swayed by the consideration of the impossibility of doing complete justice to all; and that therefore the rule which departed least from it was to be preferred. Legal compulsion to make a second payment of a debt which had been once legally discharged, would be in their opinions often as much *ex post facto* injustice to the debtor, as the first depreciated payment had been to the creditor. The general retrospect was considered as likely to involve an infinity of contention and litigation; and that, instead of promoting universal and equal justice, would operate partially, and occasion general distress to the bulk of the inhabitants, who were not accurate in the practical art of book-keeping, and be of service only to a few who kept recorded memorandums of all their pecuniary transactions. The Legislature therefore decided in favor of those who wished to confine the retrospective operation of the law respecting payments made in depreciated money, to contarcts still subsisting. Thus far, and no farther, they had a clear and certain rule by which the decision of courts might be regulated. There were doubtless many cases in which this rule operated hardly on individuals; but it was conceived that the extension of the retrospect to cancelled as well as to subsisting contracts, would have operated equally hard on a greater number.

revolution took place at a time when immense sums were due from the inhabitants of Carolina to the inhabitants of Great Britain. The non-exportation agreement of the Americans, and the restraining acts of the British Parliament, both of which took place in the first period of the revolution, made remittances impossible. To this load of old debt was added an immense mass of what was new. When the war ended, the planters found desolate plantations and very few laborers. To repair the one and purchase the other, they were in some degree compelled to contract debts. Urged by speculation, they did not always content themselves with moderate supplies for necessary purposes; but in too many cases embarrassed themselves with pecuniary engagements for the discharge of which the most favorable seasons, largest crops, and highest prices for the same would have been scarcely sufficient. The merchants, knowing the value of the staple commodities of Carolina, were very liberal of credit to the planters; but on terms of enhanced price, as a security against losses and protracted payments. Misfortunes love a train. When plentiful crops were necessary to support the credit of the country, a series of unfavorable seasons, and of desolating freshets, impaired its resources. The little of gold and silver that was in circulation soon found its way to Great Britain.

The people of Carolina had been but a short time in the possession of peace and independence when they were brought under a new species of dependence. So universally were they in debt beyond their ability to pay, that a rigid enforcement of the laws would have deprived them of their possessions and their personal liberty and still left them under incumbrances; for property, when brought to sale under execution, sold at so low a price as frequently ruined the debtor without paying the creditor. A disposition to resist the laws becomecommon. Assemblies were called of ten and earlier than the constitution or laws required. The good and evil of representative government became apparent. The assemblies were a correct representation of the people. They had common feelings, and their situations were in most cases similar. These led to measures which procured temporary relief but at the expense of the permanent and extended interests of the community. Laws were passed in which property of every kind was made a legal tender in the payment of debts though payable according to contract in gold or silver. Other laws installed the debt, so that of sums already due only a third, and afterwards only a fifth, was annually recoverable in the courts of law. Numbers were clamerous for large emissions of paper money armed with the sanction of a legal tender. This old resource in cases of extremity, had been so overdone in

the revolutionary war, that many doubted the possibility of attaching credit to anything in the form of bills of credit. After some time an emission of £100,000 sterling secured by a mortgage of land, or a deposit of plate, was risked. The smallness of the sum, and the ample security of the fund on which it was emitted, together with the great want of some circulating medium, and an agreement of the merchants to receive it in payment at its nominal value, gave it credit and circulation.

The effects of these laws, interfering between debtors and creditors, were extensive. They destroyed public credit and confidence between man and man; injured the morals of the people, and in many instances ensured and aggravated the final ruin of the unfortunate debtors for whose temporary relief they were brought forward. The procrastination of payment abated exertions to meet it with promptitude. In the meantime interest was accumulating, and the expenses of suit multiplied by the number of instalments. At no time before nor since, were the fortunes of attornies so rapidly or so easily made. At no period has an equal number of planters been involved in embarrassments from which they were never extricated, or only extricated by more than ordinary sacrifices.

The eight years of war in Carolina were followed by eight years of disorganization, which produced such an amount of civil distress as diminished with some their respect for liberty and independence. Several apprehended that the same scenes which had taken place in England in the seventeenth century after a long and bloody civil war, would be acted over again in America by a fickle people who had neither the fortitude nor the wisdom to govern themselves. Peace, and the most perfect liberty to make such laws and constitutions as the people pleased, had not hitherto brought in their train the blessings expected from them, but the power of making such alterations in both as promised to procure them were among the privileges of freemen. Peace and liberty were found inadequate to promote public happiness without the aid of energetic government. The axe of reform was laid at the root of the political evils under which the country groaned. A constitution to form a more perfect union, establish justice, ensure domestic tranquility, provide for the common defense, promote the general welfare, and secure the blessings of liberty, was wanting. To obtain such an one, Carolina concurred with the other States to meet in a general convention, and appointed Henry Laurens, John Rutledge, Charles Cotesworth Pinckney, Pierce Butler, and Charles Pinckney to attend and act in her behalf. They agreed upon and submitted

to the people a plan of general government; by which every legislative power necessary for national purposes was vested in a Congress, consisting of two branches, a Senate and House of Representatives. The former to be chosen by the Legislatures and the latter by the people of the several States. And a supreme executive officer with the name of President, was charged with the execution of the national laws and the care of the national interests. A supreme judiciary was also organized to decide all questions to the decision of which State judiciaries were improper. Thirteen independent States were formed into one nation as far as their common interests were concerned; and one uniform legislative, executive and judicial power pervaded the whole. The individual States were left in full possession of every power for their interior government, but restrained from coining money, emitting bills of credit, making anything but gold and silver a tender in payment of debts, passing any bill of attainder, *ex post facto* law, or law impairing the obligation of contracts. This constitution was submitted to a convention of the people of South Carolina consisting of two hundred and twenty-four members, by which it was accepted and ratified* on behalf of the State on the 23d day of May, 1788. Their acceptance of a constitution, which, among other clauses, contained the restraining one which has been just recited was an act of great self-denial. To resign power in possession is rarely done by individuals, but more rarely by collective bodies of men. The power thus given up by South Carolina, was one she thought essential to her welfare, and had freely exercised for several preceding years. Such a relinquishment she would not have made at any period of the last five years; for in them she had passed no less than six acts interferring between debtor and creditor, with the view of obtaining a respite for the former under particular circumstances of public distress. To tie up the hands of future Legislatures so as to deprive them of a power of repeating similar acts on any emergency, was a display both of

* This acceptance and ratification was not without opposition. In addition to the common objections which had been urged against the constitution, South Carolina had some local reasons for refusing or at least delaying a final vote on the question. Doubts were entertained of the acceptance of the constitution by Virginia. To gain time till the determination of that leading State was known, a motion for postponement was brought forward. This, after an animated debate, was overruled by a majority of forty-six. The rejection of it was considered as decisive in favor of the constitution. When the result of the vote was announced an event unexampled in the annals of Carolina took place. Strong and involuntary expressions of applause and joy burst forth from the numerous transported spectators. The minority loudly complained of disrespect—unpleasant consequences were anticipated. The majority joined with the complaining members in clearing the house, and in the most delicate manner soothed their feelings. In the true style of republicanism, the minority not only acquiesced, but heartily joined in supporting the determination of the majority. The constitution went into operation with general consent, and has ever since been strictly observed.

wisdom and magnanimity. It would seem as if experience had convinced the State of its political errors, and induced a willingness to retrace its steps and relinquish a power which had been improperly used.

The new constitution being accepted by all the States except two, went into operation in 1789. Its beneficial effects were speedily and extensively felt. It was followed by a funding system, which, among other benefits, gave life and activity to a capital of four millions of comparatively useless paper in the form of indents, which had been issued as a payment to the people of South Carolina for their services and supplies in the revolutionary war. Public credit was re-animated. The owners of property and holders of money freely parted with both, well knowing that no future law could impair the obligation of contracts. Money, in a few years, became plentiful. Three banks were established in Charlestown with an aggregate capital approaching to two millions of dollars. Trade flourished—agriculture was extended. The exports of the State between 1791 and 1801 were more than trebled. Its shipping increased in a correspondent proportion. Landed estates rose in value—confidence between man and man, which for several years had been unknown, was restored. In a short time public affairs were so much altered for the better, that the fable of the golden age seemed to be realized.

For the two first elections of President, General Washington was unanimously elected. On his declining that arduous office, Major Thomas Pinckney, of South Carolina, was brought forward in conjunction with John Adams, of Massachusetts. The Major was respectably supported by the votes of his native State, and fifty-eight in addition from other States, but failed of complete success. In the following election which took place in 1800, General Charles Cotesworth Pinckney was brought forward as a candidate in conjunction with John Adams. Both failed of success; but General Pinckney had so many votes that if his native State had voted for him he would have been either President or Vice-President; but contrary to general expectation, South Carolina preferred Aaron Burr. This vote resulted from the state of parties. The citizens were marshalled under two grand divisions, denominated federalists and republicans. The former charged the latter as being under the influence of such leveling principles as tended to disorganization—the latter retorted by representing the former as friends to such an high-toned system of government as approximated to monarchy, and both did injustice to the other. The republican electoral ticket prevailed. The electors knowing by whom and for what pur-

poses they were chosen, and declaring they were influenced by measures, and not by men, and at the same time preferring the measures of the republicans to those of the federalists, unanimously laid aside private attachments and feelings for a beloved fellow-citizen, and gave an unanimous vote for the two republican candidates. This noble pair of brothers, the two Pinckneys, who, by the unsolicited voice of their fellow-citizens in distant portions of the Union, were successively brought to the threshhold of the first offices in the United States, have since retired from public life, and devoted themselves to agriculture, the first and best employment of man.

In each of the American States the seat of Government was originally on or near the sea-coast; but in all of them whose territory reached to the western mountains, in proportion as their population increased in that direction, there has been an eagerness to remove the seat of government so as to approximate the geographical centre of their territories. The people of the back country of South Carolina, having felt their weight and influence in the revolutionary war, soon after its termination brought forward their claim to have a fixed seat of government more central than Charlestown. Every principle of republicanism supported their claim; but six years passed away before the previous arrangements were completed so as to give it effect. Commissioners were appointed to select a proper site for the projected new establishment. They fixed on Columbia, which for beauty, health, and convenience, claimed a preference. There the Legislature convened for the first time in 1790, exactly 120 years after the first English settlement in Carolina. It is remarkable that the reputed centre of population was just as many miles from the sea-coast as years had passed away from the first year of settlement in South Carolina. The interval of space was 120 miles—of time, 120 years.

The fears and apprehensions of many people on the sea-coast for the consequences of this removal, were excessive. Truth and justice never hurt any individual or State. Since the removal, party division between the upper and lower country has diminished. The inhabitants of both, by being better acquainted, are become more like one people; and entertain fewer jealousies or prejudices against each other. A disposition to compromise and accommodate took place in the breasts of both. Under the influence of these principles the convention of the people, which, for the purpose of revising the constitution, met in Columbia a few months after the removal of the seat of government, ordained that the business of the Treasury, of the Secretary of State, of the Surveyor General, should be conducted both in Charlestown and

Columbia; and that the constitutional court or meeting of all the Judges of the Court of Common Pleas, in the nature of a Court of Appeals, should in like manner be held equally in the old and new seat of government. The meetings of the Legislature at Columbia led to an establishment highly honorable and advantageous to South Carolina. A central seat of government brought in its train a well-endowed central college. The latter could not have been obtained without the former. The prospect of cementing the internal peace and harmony of the country by educating in one seminary that portion of its youth which bids fair to direct its public affairs, promised so much good as united all parties in passing bills for granting 68,000 dollars to erect buildings, and an annual income of 6,000 to support professors and teachers in a college to be erected in Columbia, under the patronage and care of the State. Thus a wise and great national measure was carried into effect on general principles, without the interference of party politics.

The convention at Columbia, which was coeval with the removal of the seat of government, in order to strengthen the principles of republicanism enjoined on the Legislature as soon as might be convenient, "to pass laws for the abolition of the rights of primogeniture, and for giving an equitable distribution of the real estate of intestates." This arduous work was entered upon and a law passed for these purposes at the very next meeting of the Assembly. The pride of man coveting to be long remembered, fondly anticipates a species of immortality by the transmission of his name to posterity. From the customs of the world, this is more certainly done in the male than female line. In old countries where the feudal system had long prevailed, the entailing of real estates on the eldest males in succession, was a common practice; this was transferred from Europe to America while the colonies were British provinces, and was by many thought an useful appendage to royal government, as favoring the distinction of ranks in society. To republicanize the rising generation, the convention of the people of South Carolina made it the duty of the constituted authorities to do away this accompaniment of royalty as far as was compatible with liberty. While every individual was left free to dispose of his property by will, the laws interfered where there was no testamentary disposition, so far as to divide the whole equally among all the descendants in equal degree, without any distinction of sex or age. This was an improvement on the existing system which gave the lands exclusively to the eldest male, and was adopted as a prop to the principles of the new government. It was well calculated to correct the monstrous inequalities of property,

between the children of the same parents, which had sometimes taken place, as contrary to natural justice as to the peace of families. It also promoted a circulation and diffusion of property, and aided the civil institutions of the country founded on the equality of rights. The aristocracy which had attached itself to some of the old families in Carolina, received a check; but encouragement was given to enterprise in one sex, and to decent well-ordered behavior in the other; for the males and females, the elder and younger branches of the same family, had no peculiar advantages but such as they respectively acquired by their good conduct and personal exertions.

The establishment of energetic government produced all the benefits expected from it. But while domestic events promised a long continuance of political happiness, the convulsions of the Old World interrupted the pleasing prospects of the New. Carolina, enjoying peace, liberty, independence, and an efficient government, hoped that by her severance from Europe she would be exempt from a participation in its contentions. These hopes were of short duration, the war which was kindled between England and France near the close of the eighteenth century, extended its baleful influence across the Atlantic. The duties of neutrality were novel to the Carolinians, and at first awkwardly performed. Gratitude to one of the European belligerents, for favors received in the American war, and a keen remembrance of injuries inflicted at the same time by the other, induced several of the inhabitants to transgress the line of impartial neutrality. The ports of the State were opened to French privateers, and its government permitted them to arm and equip within its limits. Genet, the first minister of Republican France to the United States, landed in Charlestown, and was received by Governor Moultrie and the inhabitants with an attachment approaching to enthusiasm. The enlightened mind of President Washington soon decided that an impartial neutral conduct, was the true line of conduct to be pursued by the United States. This was no sooner enjoined by the new national government, than South Carolina retraced her steps, and yielded obedience to the requisition; and her Legislature firmly resisted an attempt of the French Minister to arm her citizens, in his country's cause, against the Spanish American colonies. This decided conduct produced a temporary calm, and expectations were indulged that independent, neutral, Carolina would be undisturbed. Experience soon proved the futility of hopes founded on the expectation of justice from the belligerent nations. To distress each other they both adopted coercive measures, injurious to the rights of unoffend-

ing neutrals. The last years of the eighteenth and the first of the nineteenth century witnessed scenes of rapine and plunder of defenseless commerce, which would have disgraced the Vandalism of remote antiquity. In the year 1807 these depredations were authorized by decrees of France and orders of council in England, to such an excess, that Congress found it necessary to impose an embargo as a measure of precaution to save American property, and of coersion to operate on the interests of the European belligerents. To this self-denying measure Carolina cheerfully submitted; no act of her government, no measures sanctioned by public meetings of her inhabitants, expressed the smallest tittle of dissatisfaction with the general government—her inhabitants had been frequently taught, in the school of adversity, the policy of submitting to a present evil to obtain a future good. Her sufferings on this occasion were immense, but patiently borne: the Legislature of the State instead of weakening the hands of the nation, declared their most thorough approbation of its measures, and recommended that the inhabitants should form associations to support the laws. This was effectually done. Individuals in a few instances violated the embargo, but the public voice, without distinction of party, was in favor of its faithful execution, and the energies of the State were directed to aid its complete execution. Though the prohibition of exporting the valuable commodities of the country reduced their price one-half, yet the Courts and the Legislature firmly resisted all attempts to obstruct the legal course of justice in favor of debtors.* The forbearance of the creditor part of the com-

* To induce a suspension of legal proceedings for the recovery of debts, two methods were adopted. The grand juries in some of the districts presented it as a grievance that the courts should carry on the usual legal proceedings for the sale of property under execution at a time when the laws forbade the exportation of their crops. At the beginning of the revolution the grand jury of Charlestown presented the late Acts of the British parliament, hostile to the united colonies, as a grievance. This practice has been ever since continued, and grand juries exercise the privilege of freemen in expressing their sense of grievances from whatever quarter they may arise. Thus sanctioned by custom, in the year 1808 they wished in some districts to influence the presiding judges of courts to suspend their functions as far as they aided compulsory processes against debtors. The judges reasoned on the loss of character which would result from the measure—the sacred obligation of their oaths—and of the existing constitutions both State and national; pointed out the impolicy of all interferences between debtor and creditor, and the many evils which had resulted from the late instalment laws. Having thus prepared the minds of the people for a refusal, they paid no attention to the opinions of the jury but proceeded to hold the courts for the whole period authorized by law.

When this failed, an attempt was made to obtain the passage of a law for suspending legal proceedings against debtors on the plea of the embargo. An animated debate took place which resulted in a vote carried by a large majority, "that legislative interference was not expedient." In consequence thereof the courts were kept open and justice administered throughout the whole period of the embargo, upwards of fourteen months, without any impediment either from the courts, the Legislature, or the people.

munity generally afforded a shield to property bound by judgments and executions, which without violating the constitution, protected it more effectually than the instalment laws which had been too easily passed in the period of disorganization preceding the establishment of energetic government in 1789.

In the year 1808, when it was difficult to decide which was greatest, the sufferings or the patience of the inhabitants, a general election took place for members of the State and general government and for the electors of a President. On this occasion General Charles Coatesworth Pinckney, without any agency either of himself, his friends, or native State, was brought forward as a candidate for the Presidency. His nomination and principal support came from the eastern section of the Union. It was presumed that his talents, virtues, and popularity, aided by that prepossession which every State has more or less for its own natives, would have induced the Carolinians to vote for their highly esteemed fellow-citizen in preference to every other candidate. Great pains were taken to operate upon the feelings of the people, distressed as they were by the privations of the embargo, to induce them to favor a change of men as leading to a change of measures, but without any decisive effect on the election. The citizens being generally in favor of the administration, broke through all personal attachments, and with their votes supported the candidates whose political sentiments were known to be in unison with the ruling powers. James Madison had the unanimous electoral vote of the State, to be the successor of Thomas Jefferson, who had declined a re-election.

While the minds of the citizens were sharpened by political contention, the great interests of the State were far from being overlooked. In the same year two measures were adopted of the greatest consequence to the interests of the community. In all the changes of constitution which had taken place in South Carolina, no obvious practical rule had been laid down and acted upon for apportioning the representation to the different electoral districts. For the first fifty years of the province, all elections for members of Assembly, with one or two exceptions, were held in Charlestown; for the next fifty they were all held in the low country. For the last thirty-three, the elective franchise was extended over the State; but no principle was adopted as a permanent rule of apportionment. Many of the wealthy descendants of the first settlers near the sea-coast, preferred wealth and taxes as the regulators of representation. The more numerous but less opulent yeomanry of the west were partial to numbers. Though the subject had been often discussed before provincial Congresses, Conven-

tions, and Legislative Assemblies, they always evaded a decision. As a temporary expedient a definite number of representatives had been assigned to definite portions of territory in an arbitrary manner, without the guidance of any fixed principle. At length a law was passed in 1808, for altering the constitution in the mode prescribed in the body of that instrument, by which a principle of representation was brought forward and agreed upon. This was substantially to apportion one-half of the existing representation among the several districts in proportion to the number of their citizens, and the other half in proportion to the amount of the taxes paid by them respectively. Provision was made for taking a census of the inhabitants. This, when completed, in connection with the amount of taxable property in each elective district which can always be obtained from the fiscal officers of the State, will furnish data that at all times will make the apportionment of the representation a matter of arithmetical calculation. Thus by slow and successive steps the upper country has obtained its full proportion of influence. For several years it had no representation whatever; and afterwards a very inadequate one. Having passed through a long minority, it has for some time past been of adult age, and by unanimous consent in 1808, entered upon its full share of the common inheritance. The result has been, as might be expected, favorable to peace and harmony. The most prominent cause of jealousy and political dissension among the members of the State family, is done away. The citizens in all parts standing on equal ground, and in possession of equal rights founded on permanent principles, easily applicable both to the present and all future situations which are likely to result from the fluctuations of wealth and numbers, can have no reasonable cause for any other contentions than who shall love and serve their common country best. In no preceding period has there been so much reciprocal cordiality, and so much of a friendly disposition to accommodate, to bear, and forbear, in the political collisions of different sections of the State.

The same year gave maturity to a project for improving the constitution of the Court of Equity. That previously consisted of three judges: from the decision of any two of them there was no appeal other than to themselves on a re-hearing of the cause. Theodore Gaillard and Henry William DeSaussure were added to the equity bench, and any one of the five was empowered to hold a court and transact business; but with a reserved right to the parties of appealing from the decision of a single judge, to a full bench or a majority of all its members. Though political considerations weighed with the electors in filling up the legislative and executive departments

of government, they were laid aside in the choice of judges. The successful candidates, though of different political sentiments, were preferred from a full conviction that they were above all influence from the contracted views of party. Talents and virtues were exclusively respected. Justice was considered as neither republican nor federal; and its administration committed to clean hands and pure hearts, from whom it was expected that leaning to neither they would follow its divine attractions wherever they might lead.

Between the evacuation of Charlestown by the British in 1783, and the year 1808, the difference in the condition of South Carolina is immense. When the revolutionary contest ended, the country was full of widows and orphans made so by the war, and a deadly hatred growing out of it continued to rage between the tories and whigs. The possessions of the planters were laid waste, their laborers were carried off or greatly reduced by deaths and desertion. The morality of the inhabitants had been prostrated by laws violating private rights on the plea of political necessity—by the suspension of the Courts of Justice—by that disregard for the institutions of religion which is a never-failing attendant on military operations—by the destruction or dilapidation of churches and the consequent omission of public worship addressed to the Deity. All this time the education of the rising generation was neglected, and the youth of the country had little other training than what they got in camps amidst the din of arms. In such a condition of public affairs, to re-produce a state of things favorable to social happiness, required all the energies of the well disposed inhabitants. They immediately set about the god-like work. Assemblies were called—the best practicable laws were passed—courts were re-established, and from them impartial justice was dispensed—churches were rebuilt—the public worship of the Deity was resumed—the people were taught their duty by public instructors—schools were instituted and encouraged—the education of youth recommenced. By degrees the wounds inflicted by war on the morality and religion of the inhabitants began to heal. Their losses of property were made up from the returns of a fruitful soil, amply rewarding the labors of its cultivators. These promising appearances were strengthened by improvements on their civil institutions. In 1783 the bond of federal union was feeble and inadequate to the purposes of government. The State authorities were incompetent to their objects. There were only four courts in all the middle and back country. The seat of the Legislature was at one extremity of the State, and more than 100 miles from its center. The representation in the Assem-

bly was apportioned without any fixed rule, and in an unequal manner. By degrees all these inequalities and disabilities were done away. The powerless advisory system of the confederation yielded to an efficient national government. The seat of legislation was made to approximate to the geographical centre of the State. The seven courts were increased to twenty-five, and to all was given original, complete and final jurisdiction. No man had to go more than twenty miles to attend court, and seldom so far to a place of public worship or an election. When he voted he had the satisfaction of knowing that his vote weighed as much in regulating the affairs of the State as that of any other man. The extension of equal rights and privileges annihilated the murmurings of the people and cemented the union of all parts of the State. Active, upright judges, by their laborious investigation of facts and circumstances to come at truth—by their impartial distribution of justice and luminous charges to multiplied juries, taught the people to reverence truth and justice, and instructed them in their legal and social duties; and at the same time, by a steady line of conduct enforced their observance. The clergy co-operated with great effect in reforming the people. They carried the gospel into the remotest settlements, and made an honest use of the rewards and punishments of a future state to promote peace and order in the present. To these sources of moral improvement a powerful auxiliary was added by the introduction of cotton. The cultivation of the former great staples, particularly rice and indigo, required large capitals. They could not be raised to any considerable purpose but by negroes. In this state of things poor white men were of little account otherwise than as overseers. There were comparatively few of that intermediate and generally most virtuous class which is neither poor nor rich. By the introduction of the new staple the poor became of value, for they generally were or at least might be elevated to this middle grade of society. Land suitable for cotton was easily attained, and in tracts of every size either to purchase or rent. The culture of it entailed no diseases; might be carried on profitably by individuals or white families without slaves, and afforded employment for children whose labor was of little or no account on rice or indigo plantations. The poor having the means of acquiring property without the degradation of working with slaves, had new and strong incitements to industry. From the acquisition of property the transition was easy to that decent pride of character which secures from low vice, and stimulates to seek distinction by deserving it. As they became more easy in their circumstances, they be-

came more orderly in their conduct. The vices which grew out of poverty and idleness were diminished. In estimating the value or cotton, its capacity to excite industry among the lower classes of people, and to fill the country with an independent, industrious yeomanry, is of high importance. It has had a large share in moralizing the poor white people of the country. From the combined influence of these causes, the moral improvement of Carolina, ever since the year 1783, has been in a constant state of progression; and particularly so since 1792, when cotton became a considerable article for exportation.

On a review of the history of Carolina to this last happy period, there is abundant reason for gratitude to the Supreme Disposer of all events. A handful of English subjects, 138 years ago took possession of Carolina when occupied by savages, covered with trees, swamps, and marshes, and claimed by the Spaniards in the vicinity as their property. That the settlement under these circumstances did not like several similar ones prove abortive, must be referred to the will of Heaven. That it was preserved through a long infancy without any aid from the mother country, against repeated incursions and attacks from combined and separate operations of the Spaniards, the French and Indians, is to be accounted for in the same manner. The union and vigor of the revolutioners of 1719 when they broke the proprietary yoke, was more than could have been expected on the ordinary principles which regulate the actions of men. The same observation holds more eminently true with respect to the revolution of 1776. The part which Carolina then acted, the vigor with which she engaged in the war, and the final result of the unequal contest, are beyond all human calculations. That the people in possession of complete sovereign power should, on the return of peace, at first act unwisely, cannot excite surprise; but that they should have the good sense to submit to establish by common consent self-denying constitutions, and voluntarily impose on themselves the restraints of good government, is more than what the preceding history of man gave ground to expect. That there should be a concurrence in so many causes for reproducing religion, learning, order, justice, industry, and other moral virtues from the prostrate state into which they were thrown by the revolution, is not solely the work of man. So great has been the melioration of Carolina in all these respects, and so far beyond what might be expected for men just entering on the threshhold of sovereignty, that it must be referred to a superintending Providence. Heretofore the history of revolutions has seldom been more than the exchange

of one dynasty or depotism for another, or a stronger riveting of the chains of the former. In America the result has been very different. Foreign domination has been renounced, not to aggrandize one or a few, but to substitute an efficient system of representative government in its place. This has been found to answer not only in theory, but in practice. Under it the people have been as happy as could be expected from any or even the wisest political institutions. Young Carolinians! cherish the blood-bought inheritance derived from your fathers, and transmit it unimpaired to posterity.

BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCHES OF LITERARY MEN,

AND OTHER DISTINGUISHED CHARACTERS IN SOUTH CAROLINA

LIONEL CHALMERS, M. D.,

Was born about the year 1715 at Cambleton, in the west of Scotland, and came very young to Carolina, and there practiced physic more than forty years. He first practiced in Christ church, but soon removed to Charlestown. He was the author of several medical works, which are particularized in the chapter of Medical History, page 112. He never affected any mystery in his practice, but employed the knowledge he had acquired for the good of mankind. He was the first writer who treated of the soil, climate, weather, and generally of the diseases of South Carolina. He died in 1777, leaving behind him the character of a skillful, humane physician, and worthy honest man.

REV. RICHARD CLARKE,

Minister of St. Philip's, in Charlestown, was more known as a theologian beyond the limits of America, than any other inhabitant of Carolina. He was admired as a preacher, both in Charlestown and London. His eloquence captivated persons of taste—his serious preaching and personal piety procured for him the love and esteem of all good men. When he preached the church was crowded, and the effects of it were visible in the reformed lives of many of his hearers, and the increased number of serious communicants. His sermons were often composed under the impressions of music, of which he was passionately fond. From its soothing effects, and from the overflowing benevolence of his heart, God's love to man, peace and good will among men, were the subjects on which he dwelt with peculiar delight. He gave on the week-day a regular course of lectures on the Epistle to the Hebrews, which were much admired. So great at that time was the harmony between ministers of different denominations in Charlestown, that Mr. Clarke agreed with Mr. Hutson, minister of the Congregational or Independent Church, who was also in the habit of delivering a week-day lecture, that the lecture of the one should be on Wednesday—of the other, on Friday, in order that each might hear the other, and that an opportunity of attending both might also be afforded to such of their respective congregations as desired it. About this period both these worthy men were members of a religious and literary society composed, in addition to themselves, of the Rev. Mr. Zubly, minister of the Independent church in Christ church—the minister of the Scotch Presbyterian church, Mr. Christopher Gadsden, Mr. Gabriel Manigault, Mr. Henry and Mr. James Laurens, Mr. Ben. Smith, members of the Episcopal church, Mr. Daniel Crawford, Mr. John Rattray, an eminent lawyer and learned man—the two last named were members of the Presbyterian church—and of several others whose names are not now distinctly remembered. The Society met once a month in the evening at the houses of the respective members. One of the clergymen opened the meeting with a short prayer, and they then discussed some literary or religious topic which had been previously agreed on, without, however, being so strictly confined to it, but that other matters not inconsistent with the intention of the meeting might be introduced.

After several years residence in Charlestown, Mr. Clarke, in the year 1759, left Carolina and was soon after appointed lecturer of Stoke Newington, at St. James' Aldgate in London. Though that city abounded with first-rate preachers, his eloquence and piety attracted a large share of public attention. He was so much esteemed and beloved in Charlestown, that several of its inhabitants sent their children after him, and put them under his care and instruction at an academy which he opened near London. Soon after his return to England he commenced

author, and at successive periods published six volumes and several pamphlets on theological subjects. In these, much biblical, classical, and historical knowledge was displayed. His letter to Dr. Adam Smith on his account of the death of David Hume, was extensively read and much admired. Of his writings in explanation of scripture prophecies, the present generation will have an opportunity of judging; for according to his commentaries, the general conversion of the Jews will take place between the present day and the year 1835. That these works were written in Carolina is probable, for the substance of a considerable part of them was preached in Charlestown. In the title page he calls himself "late minister of St. Philip's, Charlestown, South Carolina." He lived to an extreme old age, and was through life esteemed for his fervent piety, great learning, and commanding eloquence.

WILLIAM HENRY DRAYTON,

Was born in Carolina in 1742. He spent his youth and acquired his education in England. Soon after he came to manhood he returned to Carolina and there with inferior opportunities, but superior industry, prosecuted his studies. In it he acquired the greater part of that knowledge for which he was afterwards distinguished. He first began to write for the public about the year 1769. Under the signature of Freeman, he stated several legal and constitutional objections to an association, or rather the mode of enforcing an association, for suspending the importation of British manufactures which was then generally signed by the inhabitants. This involved him in a political controversy in which he was opposed by Christopher Gadsden and John Mackenzie. In the year 1774 he wrote a pamphlet under the signature of Freeman, which was addressed to the American Congress. In this he stated the grievances of America, and drew up a bill of American rights. This was well received. It substantially chalked out the line of conduct adopted by Congress then in session. He was elected a member of the Provincial Congress which sat in January 1775; and in the course of that year was advanced to the presidency thereof. In the latter character he issued on the 9th of November, 1775, the first order that was given in South Carolina for firing on the British. The order was addressed to Col. Wm. Moultrie, and directed him "by every military operation to endeavor to oppose the passage of any British naval armament that may attempt to pass fort Johnson." This was before Congress had decided on independence, and in the then situation of Carolina was a bold, decisive measure.

Before the revolution Mr. Drayton was one of the King's counsellors, and one of his assistant Judges for the province. The first of these offices he resigned, and from the last he was dismissed by the officers of his Britannic majesty. On the formation of a popular constitution he was reinstated by his countrymen in the corresponding offices of the State, and in the last, advanced to the rank of Chief Justice. In this latter capacity he gave a charge to the Grand Jury in April, 1776, in which he declared "that George the Third, King of Great Britain, had abdicated the government of South Carolina, that he had no authority over the people of that colony, and that they owed no obedience to him." This being anterior to the declaration of independence was bold language. Several publications appeared from his pen, explaining the injured rights of his country and encouraging his fellow-citizens to vindicate them. He has also left a manuscript history of the American revolution in three folio volumes, brought down to the end of the year 1778, which he intended to continue and publish. His country, pleased with his zeal and talents, heaped offices upon him. He was appointed a member of Congress in 1778 and 1779. Soon after he had taken his seat British commissioners came to America with the hope of detaching the States from their alliance with France. Congress could not, consistently with national honor, enter on a discussion of the terms offered to them as an inducement to violate their faith plighted to France; but some individuals of their body ably proved the propriety of rejecting the British offers and adhering to independence and the alliance with France. William Henry Drayton entered largely into this discussion, and with great force of argument and poignancy of wit, justified the measures adopted by his countrymen. This was the last offering made by his pen in favor of America; for in the next year, and in the 37th of his age, he died in Philadelphia while attending his duty in Congress. He was a statesman of great decision and energy, and one of the ablest political writers Carolina has produced.

CHRISTOPHER GADSDEN,

Was born in Charlestown in the year 1724. He was the son of Thomas Gadsden, the King's Collector, and a Lieutenant in the British navy. Christopher Gadsden was sent by his father to England for his education, and there learned Latin, Greek, and French. He afterwards acquired a knowledge of Hebrew and the oriental languages. At the age of sixteen he returned to Carolina and was sent to Philadelphia and placed in the counting-house of Mr. Laurence. At the age of twenty-one he went to England. On his return to Carolina, as a passenger on board of a man-of-war, the purser died, and Mr. Gadsden was appointed in his place, and continued for two years in that office; then left the navy and followed merchandize, and afterwards planting and factorage. Whatever he undertook he pursued with all his might. The large wharf known by his name, which he began and completed, is a work of greater magnitude than ever has yet been accomplished in Charlestown by any one man. Henry Laurens and he were cotemporaries; and attached in their early youth to each other by the strongest ties of ardent friendship. They made a common cause to support and encourage each other in every virtuous pursuit, to shun every path of vice and folly, to leave company whenever it tended to licentiousness, and by acting in concert, to parry the charge of singularity so grating to young persons. By an honorable observance of a few concerted rules, they mutually strengthened virtuous habits, broke the force of many temptations, and acquired an energy of character which fitted them for acting a distinguished part in the trying scenes of a revolution through which it was the destiny of both to pass under similar circumstances.

Mr. Gadsden had naturally a strong love for independence. He was born a Republican. Under well ordered government he was a good subject; but could not brook the encroachments of any man or body of men intrenching on his rights.

Mr. Gadsden was for several years prior to the stamp act elected a representative of Charlestown; and during that period was always a very active and influential member in the Commons House of Assembly. There is no instance to be found in which private interest interfered with his public duty.

In the year 1759, when Governor Lyttelton made his expedition against the Cherokees, there was not a single field-piece mounted in all Carolina. Mr. Gadsden by his influence obtained the passage of a law for raising a company of artillery. Of this he was appointed Captain, and at the head of it accompanied the Governor into the Indian country. This was the origin of what, after many changes and enlargements, is now called the ancient battalion of artillery.

When the British began their projects for abridging the privileges of the colonies, Mr. Gadsden was among the first to take fire. If he had lived in the days of King Charles, he would have been another Hampden. He described independence when it was afar off, and early foresaw that such was the nature of man that America could never be governed with an exclusive or even a preferable view to her own interest, while the fountain of power was three thousand miles distant. He had correct ideas of the rights of man and of the representative system, long before Mr. Paine wrote on the subject. With such views he was among the foremost to resist the unconstitutional claims of Great Britain. When the project of a general Congress to give union and system to measures of defense was first before the Commons House of Assembly in 1765, he was indefatigable in making friends to the measure. His talents for speaking did not exceed mediocrity, yet there was in him so much honest zeal, ardor, and energy, that he had no small share of the merit of bringing the House into that important measure. Being appointed one of its members, he was the steady friend of his country's rights, put his foot on firm American ground, and from it no consideration could induce him to depart. When the scheme of revenue was renewed in 1767, he was one of the first and most zealous promoters of an association to suspend all importations of British manufactures, with a few exceptions, till a repeal of the new duties imposed on the colonies should be obtained—and was one of the last to recede from that self-denying mode of obtaining a redress of grievances. To the New Englanders he was a steady friend, the constant correspondent of Samuel Adams, and great admirer of the zeal and principles of the inhabitants of Boston. The news of the bill for shutting its port harrowed up his soul. He was willing to do and suffer whatever was most likely to procure for its inhabitants the most speedy and complete relief. He had about that time completed the largest wharf in Charlestown, which was just beginning to yield an interest on an immense capital expended in building it. His whole prospect of reimbursement was founded on the continuance of trade, and especially on the exportation of rice. He never-

theless urged the adoption of a non-importation and non-exportation agreement; and that the colonists should retire within themselves and live on their domestic resources till Great Britain redressed their grievances, most heartily concurred in these measures when adopted in the latter end of the year 1774 by Congress, of which he was a member, and was uncommonly active in afterwards enforcing their strict execution, though few men lost more by them than he did. In June 1775, when the Provincial Congress determined to raise troops, Mr. Gadsden, though absent on public duty at Philadelphia, was without his consent or knowledge elected Colonel of the first regiment. For personal courage he was inferior to no man. In knowledge of the military art he had several equals and some superiors; but from the great confidence reposed in his patriotism and the popularity of his name, he was put at the head of the new military establishment. He left Congress and repaired to the camp in Carolina, declaring that "wherever his country placed him, whether in the civil or military department; and if in the latter, whether as Corporal or Colonel, he would cheerfully serve to the utmost of his ability." In the next year he was promoted by Congress to the rank of Brigadier-General. He commanded at fort Johnson when the fort on Sullivan's island was attacked; and he was prepared to receive the enemy in their progress to Charlestown. The repulse of the British prevented his coming into action. Their retreat relieved South Carolina from the pressure of war for two years. In this period Mr. Gadsden resigned his military command, but continued to serve in the Assembly and the Privy Council, and was very active in preparing for and endeavoring to repel the successive invasions of the State by the British in 1779 and 1780. He was the friend of every vigorous measure, and always ready to undertake the most laborious duties, and to put himself in the front of danger. When Charlestown surrendered by capitulation, he was Lieutenant-Governor, and paroled as such, and honorably kept his engagement. For the three months which followed, he was undisturbed; but on the defeat of Gates in August, 1780, the British resolved that he and several others, who discovered no disposition to return to the condition of British subjects, should be sent out of the country. He was accordingly taken in his own house by a file of soldiers and put on board a vessel in the harbor. He knew not why he was taken up, nor what was intended to be done with him, but supposed it was introductory to a trial for treason or rebellion, as the British gave out that the country was completely conquered. He was soon joined by twenty-eight compatriots, who were also taken up onthe same day. He drew from his pocket half a dollar, and turning to his associates with a cheerful countenance assured them that was all the money he had at his command. The conquerors sent him and his companions to St. Augustine, then a British garrison. On their landing, limits of some extent were offered to them on condition of their renewing the parole they had given in Charlestown, "to do nothing injurious to the British interest." When this was tendered to General Gadsden, he replied "that he had already given one and honorably observed it; that in violation of his rights as a prisoner under a capitulation, he had been sent from Charlestown, and that therefore he saw no use in giving a second parole." The commanding officer replied, "he would enter into no arguments, but demanded an explicit answer whether he would or would not renew his parole." General Gadsden answered with that high minded republican spirit which misfortunes could not keep down, "I will not. In God I put my trust, and fear no consequences." He was instantly hurried off to the castle, and there confined for ten months in a small room, and in a state of complete separation from his fellow-prisoners, and in total ignorance of the advantages gained by his countrymen, but with most ample details of their defeats, and particularly of the sequestration of his estate with that of the other Carolina rebels. It is remarkable that Christopher Gadsden and Henry Laurens, whose virtuous juvenile friendship has been just related, were at the same time in close confinement; one in the castle of St. Augustine, and the other in the tower of London. Mr. Gadsden improved his solitude by close application to study and came out much more learned than he entered. In the course of 1781 the victories of General Greene procured an equivalent for the release of all the prisoners belonging to South Carolina. Mr. Gadsden was discharged from close confinement and rejoined his fellow-prisoners. The reciprocal congratulations on the change of circumstances and on seeing each other after a ten months separation, though in the same garrison, may be more easily conceived than expressed. They were all conveyed by water from St. Augustine to Philadelphia, and there delivered. On their arrival they were informed for the first time of the happy turn American affairs had taken subsequent to Gates's defeat. General Gadsden hastened back to Carolina to aid in recovering it from the British. He was elected a member of the Assembly which met at Jacksonborough in 1782. On their meeting it became necessary to

choose a new Governor. The suffrages of a majority were in the first instance in favor of Christopher Gadsden, who declined the office in a short speech to the following effect: "I have served you in a variety of stations for thirty years, and I would now cheerfully make one of a forlorn hope in an assault on the lines of Charlestown if it was probable that with the certain loss of my life you would be reinstated in the possession of your capital. What I can do for my country I am willing to do. My sentiments of the American cause, from the stamp act downwards have never changed. I am still of opinion that it is the cause of liberty and of human nature. If my acceptance of the office of Governor would serve my country, though my administration would be attended with the loss of personal credit and reputation, I would cheerfully undertake it. The present times require the vigor and activity of the prime of life; but I feel the increasing infirmities of age to such a degree that I am conscious I cannot serve you to advantage. I therefore beg for your sakes, and for the sake of the public, that you would indulge me with the liberty of declining the arduous trust." He was indulged in his request; but though he declined the laborious office of Governor, he continued to serve both in the Assembly and Council where, notwithstanding the long confinement he had suffered in the castle of St. Augustine and the immense loss of his property, he opposed the law which was brought in for confiscating the estates of the adherents to the British government, and zealously contended that sound policy required to forget and forgive.

General Gadsden continued in the country throughout the year 1782, serving as one of the Governor's Council. On the 14th of December, 1782, he, with the American army and citizens, made their triumphant entry into Charlestown in the rear of the evacuating British. In the first moment of his return after an absence of more than two years, he had the pleasure of seeing the British fleet, upward of 300 sail, in the act of departing from the port, and the capital as well as the country restored to its proper owners. Mr. Gadsden henceforward devoted himself to private pursuits; but occasionally served in the Assembly, and with unspeakable delight in the two State conventions; the one for the ratification of the national constitution in 1788, and the other for revising the State constitution in 1790. From the first dawn of independence he was particularly anxious for an efficient constitution, and considered nothing done while that remained undone. When difficulties arose or delays took place on this great subject, he was full of fears that the independent Americans would form different confederacies; or like their forefathers in England bow their necks to the royal government; an event which he dreaded as one of the greatest political evils which could befall his country. He survived his eighty-first year, generally enjoying good health, and at last died more from the consequences of an accidental fall than the weight of disease or decays of nature. At his death he was honored by the State Cincinnati and American Revolution Societies, who requested the Rev. Mr. Bowen to preach a funeral sermon on the occasion. Throughout life he was a strictly honest, virtuous, good man, a regular attendant on divine service in St. Phillip's church, and a steady communicant in the same. In the high day of Episcopal establishment he was friendly with and liberal to dissenters. When early in the revolution they petitioned the Assembly for equal religious liberty, he brought forward their petition and advocated their claims as founded in reason, justice, and policy. He was the friend of good clergymen of all denominations, and wished to promote peace among all sects and parties. His opinions of lawyers were not favorable. He considered their pleadings as generally tending to obscure what was plain and to make difficulties where there were none; and much more subservient to render their trade lucrative, than to advance justice. He adhered to that clause of Mr. Locke's fundamental constitution which makes it "a base and vile thing to plead for money or reward;" and wished that the lawyers, when necessary to justice, should be provided with salaries at a public expense, like the Judges, that they might be saved from the shame of hiring their tongues to the first who offered or gave the largest fee. Of physicians he thought very little. He considered temperance and exercise superior to all their prescriptions, and that in most cases they rendered them altogether unnecessary. In many things he was particular. His passions were strong and required all his religion and philosophy to curb them. His patriotism was both disinterested and ardent. He declined all offices of profit, and through life refused to take the compensations annexed by law to such offices of trust as were conferred on him. His character was impressed with the hardihood of antiquity; and he possessed an erect, firm, intrepid mind, which was well calculated for buffeting with revolutionary storms.

REV. COMMISSARY GARDEN,

Was born in Scotland about the year 1685. Of his education, and of the time of his arrival in Carolina, nothing precise or certain is known; but from circumstances it is probable that he must have arrived about the year 1720, for he died in 1756, at the age of seventy-one, after he had been thirty-four years rector of St. Phillip's, Charlestown. Some years after his arrival, he was appointed Commissary of the Bishop of London for the two Carolinas, Georgia, and Bahama Islands. In the discharge of the duties of this high office he was strict and impartial. Improper conduct on the part of clergymen was immediately noticed, the delinquents brought to trial, and the canons of the church were enforced against them. His appearance as one of the visitors of the free-school in Charlestown was the sure precursor of a strict examination. He did not permit the teachers, as they are very fond of doing, to point out the places for examination. This business was managed by him as it ought to be, and was a real trial of what the pupils had learned. It was not confined to selected portions on which they had been previously prepared, but extended generally and promiscuously to all they had gone over. His visits and strict examinations produced good effect, both on masters and scholars. In the discharge of family and clerical duties, Commissary Garden was exemplary. He was attentive to the religious education of his children and servants, and it is mentioned in the "Abstract of the Proceedings of the Society for Propagating the Gospel," in South Carolina, dated 1752, "that a flourishing school was taught in Charlestown by a negro of the society, under the inspection and direction of the worthy rector, Garden, by which means many poor negroes were taught to believe in God and in his Son Jesus Christ." He kept up strict discipline in his church; was careful whom he admitted as sponsors for children at the time of baptism; caused children who on account of sickness had been hastily baptized in private, in case of their recovery, to be presented for a public reception into the church; refused the communion to immoral persons, and admitted no young persons as communicants till he was privately satisfied that they understood the nature of the ordinance, and had those views of religion which are proper for communicants. In all cases he was a strict observer of rules and forms, and would not lightly depart from them. His particularities subjected him to remarks, but were the effect of a systematic line of conduct which he had prescribed for himself. He would not receive from persons he married one penny more or less than the law allowed, nor at any other time than that prescribed in the prayer-book. Nor would he marry any persons in Lent, nor on the other fast days prescribed by the church; nor in any other manner than was strictly conformable to the book of common prayer. His charity was in like manner measured by rule. The exact tenth of his whole income was regularly given to the poor. In every thing he was methodical. He carefully digested his plans, and steadily adhered to them. Strict himself, according to the forms of his religion, he required strictness from others. Under his pastoral care, a profession of religion was no slight matter. It imposed a necessity of circumspect conduct, regulated in all respects by the prescribed forms of the church. Though his literary talents were great, nothing more is known of him as an author, than that he preached and printed a sermon on these words: "They who have turned the world upside down, have come hither also:" in which he exposed the evil consequences of fanaticism and innovation.

ALEXANDER GARDEN, M. D.,

Was born in Scotland about the year 1728, and was the son of the Rev. Alexander Garden of the parish of Birse, in the shire of Aberdeen, a clergyman of high respectability, who, during the rebellion in the years 1745 and 1746 was distinguished by his exertions in favor of the family of Hanover; and still more so by his humane interposition in behalf of the followers of the house of Stuart, after their defeat at Culloden. Dr. Garden received his philosophical and classical education in the University of Aberdeen, at the Mareschal College there. He received his first medical education under the celebrated Dr. John Gregory, and studied also a twelvemonth in Edinburgh. He arrived in South Carolina about the middle of the 18th century, and commenced the practice of physic in Prince William's Parish, in connection with Dr. Rose. Here he began his botanic studies; but having lost his health, he was obliged to take a voyage to the northward for his recovery. In the year 1754 he went to New York, where a professorship in the college recently formed was offered to him, but he declined the acceptance thereof. On his return he settled in Charlestown, and continued to practice

physic there for about thirty years. In this period he amassed a handsome fortune, being deservedly in very high esteem, and extensively employed. He brought with him a hæmoptoic constitution, but the complaint was suspended during his residence in Carolina. He was well acquainted with the Latin and Greek classics, understood the French and Italian languages, and was a considerable proficient in the knowledge of the belles lettres; in mathematics, philosophy, history and miscelluneous literature; but his attention, when the duties of his profession permitted any relaxation, was chiefly directed to the study of natural history, and particularly to that branch of it which is called botany. A list of his communications on these subjects has been already given in the preceding chapter of medical history. Linnæus, with whom he corresponded in Latin, gave his name, Gardenia, to a most beautiful flowering shrub; and often mentioned him with applause. He was also highly esteemed by the literati throughout Europe, with several of whom he corresponded. About the year 1772 he was elected a fellow of the Royal Society of London. Shortly after his return to Europe in 1783, he was appointed one of its council, and afterwards one of its vice-presidents. To extend his knowledge in natural history, Dr. Garden, accompanied James Glen, Governor of South Carolina, in the year 1755, when he penetrated into the Indian country, and formed a treaty with the Cherokees in their own mountains. In this expedition Dr. Garden discovered an earth which, upon a fair trial by the manufacturers at Worcester, in Great Britain, was deemed equal to the finest porcelain that ever was imported from India Unfortunately no precise knowledge can now be had of the spot where this valuable earth was found. Hitherto no advantage has resulted from the discovery, though no doubt exists of its reality and importance. On Dr. Garden's return to Europe, his consumptive diathesis, which had been long suspended, began to show itself. He endeavored to parry its attacks by traveling. This answered a valuable purpose, but failed in its primary object. He found that wherever he went his literary fame had preceded him, and induced many to court his acquaintance. In France he was treated by men of science with the most pointed attention, and hailed as a brother. He met with a similar reception in Switzerland, and was particularly caressed by Lavater, the author of an elaborate work on Physiognomy. In the course of his travels he tried the effects of breathing his native air, and of revisiting the haunts of his youth, hoping that the pleasing recollection of juvenile scenes would have a salutary influence in arresting the progress of his disease. He was received as a man who had done honor to his native land, and extended its reputation as the soil of genius. He found that his venerable father, after reaching his 90th year, had lately died. Nought remained but to do honor to his memory. The son drew up a monumental inscription in elegant classical Latin, commemorative of the virtues of the father. This is shown to strangers as honorable to both, and is respectfully mentioned in the statistical account of the parish, edited by Sir John Sinclair.

Dr. Garden was highly pleased with the attentions he everywhere received in his travels, but all this time his disorder was advancing. Having made every exertion to preserve his life, he finally made up his mind to his situation, resolved to travel no more, and to meet his approaching fate in the bosom of his family. He accordingly settled at London, and soon after expired in that city, in the year 1792. The high reputation for literature to which he attained reflected honor both on his native and adopted country. In the first a good foundation was laid, especially in classical learning; in the latter the superstructure was raised. He came young to Carolina, and was then barely initiated in the favorite studies in which he particularly excelled. He acquired most of his botanical knowledge in the woods of Carolina. He was fond of good company, and particularly of refined female society, and to it he devoted a considerable portion of his time; but enough was reserved for mental improvement. He never complained of the climate as too hot for study. In it, though oppressed with professional business, he redeemed time enough to examine its natural riches, and to co-extend its fame with his own.

MAJOR JOHN JAMES,

Was born in Ireland in 1732, and was the son of an officer who had served King William in his wars in Ireland against King James. This circumstance was the origin of the name of Williamsburg, which is now attached to one of the districts of Carolina. The elder James, with his family and several of his neighbors, migrated to that district in 1733, made the first settlement there, and in honor of King William, gave his name to a village laid out on the east bank of Black river. The village is now called King's Tree, from a white or short-leaved pine which in old royal grants was reserved for the use of the King; and the name of

Williamsburg has been transferred to the district. To it Major James, when an infant, was brought by his parents. His first recollections were those of a stockade fort, and of war between the new settlers and the natives. The former were often reduced to great straits in procuring the necessaries of life, and in defending themselves against the Indians. In this then frontier settlement, Major James, Mr. James Bradley, and other compatriots in the revolution, were trained up to defend and love their country. Their opportunities for acquiring liberal educations were slender, but for obtaining religious instruction were very ample. They were brought up under the eye and pastoral care of the Rev. John Rae, a Presbyterian minister who accompanied his congregation in their migration from Ireland to Carolina. When the revolution commenced in 1775, Major James had acquired a considerable portion both of reputation and property. He was a Captain of militia under George the Third. Disapproving of the measures of the British government, he resigned his royal commission, but was soon after reinstated by a popular vote. In the year 1776 he marched with his company to the defence of Charlestown. In the year 1779 he was with General Moultrie on his retreat before General Prevost, and commanded 120 riflemen in the skirmish at Tulifinny. When Charlestown was besieged in 1780, Major James marched to its defence, but Governor John Rutledge ordered him back to embody the country militia. The town having fallen, he was employed by his countrymen to wait on the conquerors and to inquire of them what terms they would give. On finding that nothing short of unconditional submission and a resumption of the characters and duties of British subjects would be accepted, he abruptly broke off all negotiation, as has been already related; and rejoining his friends, formed the stamina of the distinguished corps known in the latter periods of the revolutionary war by the name of Marion's Brigade. His conduct as one of the confidential officers of General Marion in the hard struggle which followed, has been already narrated. In the course of this cruel and desultory warfare, Major James was reduced from easy circumstances to poverty. All his movable property was carried off, and every house on his plantation burnt; but he bore up under these misfortunes, and devoted not only all his possessions, but life itself, for the good of his country. After Greene, as Commander-in-Chief, had superseded Marion, Major James continued to serve under the former, and fought with him at the battle of Eutaw. The corps with which he served consisted mostly of riflemen, and were each furnished with twenty-four rounds of cartridges. Many of them expended the whole, and most of them twenty of these, in firing on the enemy. As they were in the habit of taking aim, their shot seldom failed of doing execution. Shortly after this action, Major James and General Marion were both elected members of the State Legislature. Before the General had rejoined his brigade it was unexpectedly attacked, and after retreating, was pursued by a party of British commanded by Colonel Thompson, now Count Rumford. In this retreat Major James, being mounted, was nearly overtaken by two British dragoons, but kept them from cutting him down by a judicious use of his pistols, and escaped by leaping a chasm in a bridge of twenty feet width. The dragoons did not follow. The Major, being out of their reach, rallied his men, brought them back to the charge, and stopped the progress of the enemy. When the war was nearly over he resigned his commission, and like another Cincinnatus, returned to his farm and devoted the remainder of his days to the improvement of his property and the education of his children. In the year 1791 he died with the composure and fortitude of a Christian hero.

SIR NATHANIEL JOHNSON,

Was Governor of South Carolina for seven or eight of the first years of the eighteenth century. He had been bred a soldier, and was also a member of the House of Commons. From the year 1686 to 1689 he had been Governor of Nevis, St. Christopher's, Montserrat, and Antigua, commonly called the Leeward Islands. Soon after the termination of his government in 1789, he became a private inhabitant of South Carolina. Being fond of projects, his attention was turned to that province, as being in a latitude favorable to his views. He was particularly allured by the hope of making silk, and commenced a settlement for that purpose. In this he succeeded so far as to make considerable quantities of that commodity. His example encouraged others to engage in the same business. His experiments were made on a plantation which to this day is called the Silk Hope. A project for making salt also engaged his attention. To the settlement on Seewee Bay, where his experiments were made with this view, he gave the name of Salt Ponds. The result is not known. He also attempted the culture of grapes, and is said to have succeeded in making wine, but in small quantities. Soon after his arrival in Carolina, rice was introduced. He made many trials of the severa

kinds of rice, and of the soil most suitable for it; and incurred considerable expense in building mills and other machinery necessary for preparing the grain for use or market. His experiments and example had a considerable influence in determining the planters of these days to engage in the culture of this new commodity. These enterprises, and his military education, gave him extensive popularity, and induced the proprietors to offer him the government of the province. But as he was suspected of not being well affected to the revolution of 1688 in England, Queen Anne would not give her approbation but on the conditions of his giving security for observing the laws of trade and navigation, and such instructions as should be sent out to him by her majesty. These conditions were complied with. As Governor he was active and intelligent. His influence over the Assembly was great. Of this he made a proper use by urging the completion of the fortifications of Charlestown and its harbor. The fort on the east end of James Island was called by his name. To defray the expenses of these works, heavy taxes were necessary, and of course his popularity was for some time diminished; but time and posterity have done him ample justice. Soon after these fortifications were completed, their utility was demonstrated. The province was invaded by 800 Frenchmen, and the recent fortifications were instrumental in discouraging the invading army, though within the bar, from making an attack on the town. The result, highly honorable to the Governor, and the notice taken of him by the proprietors for his good conduct on this occasion, have been related.

While Sir Nathaniel Johnson was successful in fortifying and defending the town and harbor, he was equally so in procuring a legal establishment of the Episcopal church. His influence was exerted in favor of this measure. It was carried by great address and management through the Legislature by a single vote, and at a time when a majority of the people were dissenters and opposed to it. The Governor concurring in the common creed of the times, that an established religion was necessary to the support of civil government, and believing that the best interests of the province would be promoted by endowing the Episcopal church, he exerted all his influence with the Assembly and people to procure its advancement to public support and legal pre-eminence. The result was in several respects answerable to his expectations. It was the means of introducing about 100 Episcopal clergymen into the country, who were men of regular education and useful in their profession, who generally became settlers and left families. It also contributed to the introduction of a number of bibles and other books on religious subjects, which either formed parochial libraries or were given away by missionaries of the English society for propagating the gospel. The establishment also procured an influx of several hundred pounds sterling annually into the country for the maintenance of Episcopal clergymen, in aid of their provincial legal salary. The annual allowance of from £30 to £50 to several of that description was continued down to the revolution. For these benefits resulting from the establishment, the country was in a great measure indebted to Governor Johnson. The Assembly was sensible that his continuance in office was so essential to the continuance of the establishment, that they made a most extraordinary provision against the contingency of his death or removal from office. This is expressed in the preamble of an act passed in his administration in the following words: "Whereas the Church of England has of late been so happily established among us, fearing that by the succession of a new Governor this church may be either undermined or wholly subverted; to prevent which calamity falling upon us, be it enacted, that this present Assembly shall continue to sit two years, and for the term of eighteen months after the change of government, or the succession of another in his time."

The salaries of Governors were at this early period low, and did not exceed two hundred pounds sterling; but they found out an indirect method of increasing them by a monopoly, or a profitable management of the trade with the Indians. Governor Johnson consented to a law for a different arrangement of this business, by commissioners appointed by the Assembly, on terms that were injurious to his private interest, but in their consequences highly beneficial to the province. His administration lasted for six or seven years, and was highly reputable to himself and eminently conducive to the improvement of Carolina. He was, nevertheless, in the year 1709, superseded by Colonel Tynte. It probably was the policy of the proprietors to make frequent changes of their Governors, for it does not appear that any fault was found with Johnson. Of his subsequent life nothing is known.*

* It is probable that he lived a retired private life in Carolina, for he died there in 1713, and was buried on his Silk Hope plantation. From respect to his memory, his grave was surrounded by a brick wall by Gabriel Manigault, who purchased the plantation many years after the death of Sir Nathaniel Johnson.

His son, Robert Johnson, succeeded to the same office about eight years after, at which period there had been four intermediate Governors.

It has been the lot of Governor Sir Nathaniel Johnson, in common with several other of the distinguished personages in Carolina, to have their names extinct, though their blood still survives in the female line. His daughter married the great-great-grandfather of the present Philip P. Broughton. His two granddaughters married: one, Ralph Izard, the other Benjamin Stead; but no person of the name of Johnson is known now to exist, who can trace back his family to the illustrious Governor, Sir Nathaniel Johnson.

JOHN LINING, M. D.,

Was born in Scotland in 1708, and arrived in Carolina when he was about twenty-two years old. For nearly thirty years he successfully practiced physic in Charlestown, and was reckoned one of its most skillful physicians. His fame was much more extensive than his practice. The latter was necessarily confined to the vicinity of his residence; but his medical writings, which have been particularly mentioned in the preceding chapter of medical history, page 62; his statical experiments and meteorological observations, which were published in the transactions of the Royal Society of London, procured for him a large portion of fame in Europe. His statical experiments are the only ones that have ever been made to any extent in America; and his meteorological observations, commencing as early as 1738, were the first made in Carolina, and as far as is known, the first made in the British Colonies, now United States, which have been published. He was also the first experimenter in Carolina on electricity, and ranked high among the early literati of the new world. He died in 1760, with a distinguished reputation as a physician and a philosopher, after he had extended the literary fame of his adopted country to distant regions.

HENRY LAURENS,

Was born in Charlestown in 1724. His ancestors were French Protestant refugees, who had left France soon after the revocation of the edict of Nantz. They first settled in New York, but afterwards removed to Charlestown. His education was superintended at first by Mr. Howe, and afterwards by Mr. Corbett, the same who after instructing Peter Manigault, William Drayton, and some other excellent classical scholars in Carolina, returned to England and became high bailiff of Westminster. Being designed for a merchant, Henry Laurens was early in life put under the care of Thomas Smith, merchant of Charlestown, and afterwards of Mr. Crokatt, of London, who had returned to Europe after having acquired a considerable estate in Charlestown. Under these instructors, Henry Laurens was regularly bred to merchandize, and acquired those habits of order, system, and method in business, for which he was through life remarkable. On his return from London, he entered into partnership with Mr. Austin, an established merchant of Charlestown, and engaged in trade with spirit, but at the same time with caution and judgment. His scrupulous attention to punctuality not only in the discharge of pecuniary engagements, but in being where and in doing what he had promised was almost romantic. He suffered nothing to interfere with his own engagements, and highly disrelished all breaches of punctuality on the part of others. He was an excellent model for a young man to form himself upon, and was largely trusted in that way by parents who wished their sons to be brought up strictly and in habits of doing business with accuracy. To have served in his counting-house was no small recommendation. He worked hard himself, and made all around him do the same. He required less sleep than most men, and devoted a great part of the night to the ordinary mercantile pursuits of the day. For the dispatch of business he was never exceeded, perhaps never equalled, in Charlestown. He was a very early riser, and devoted the morning to his counting-house, and frequently had the business of the day not only arranged, but done, when others were beginning to deliberate on the expediency of leaving their beds. His letters were generally written in the retired hours of the night and morning. In them his ideas were always expressed in strong and precise language, which forcibly conveyed his meaning without a possibility of being misunderstood. Whether friendship, business, or amusement was the subject, his epistolary style was excellent and well worthy of imitation.

He had an exact knowledge of human nature, and, in his own mercantile language, soon found out the par of exchange of every man with whom he transacted business. His eye was uncommonly penetrating, and the correct opinions he frequently formed of the real characters of men, from their looks, would, if known to Lavater,

have confirmed that philosopher in his theory of physiognomy. Such diligence, and such knowledge of men and of business, could not fail of success. It is no small evidence of this, and at the same time, characteristic of the period in which Mr. Laurens was engaged in trade, between 1747 and 1770, that at the winding up of his partnership concerns, which had embraced transactions to the amount of many millions of pounds of the then currency, he offered his partner to take all outstanding debts as cash, at a discount of five per cent. on their gross amount.

His talents for conversation were great. He could adapt himself to the young and the old, the gay and the grave, to the man of business and the votaries of pleasure. He reproved without offending, and gave advice without appearing to dictate.

Mr. Laurens' love of justice was extreme. He would never draw a bill of exchange till he had a written acknowledgment from the person on whom he drew, that he was indebted to the amount drawn for. He cheerfully partook of diversions in their proper time and place; but had at all periods of his life so deep rooted an aversion to gaming, that he never played at cards or any other game, but for amusement, unless on some very rare occasions, when in company with those to whom play was without zest except something was risked, he so far conformed to their humor as to play for money on a very moderate scale, and in case of loss he promptly paid, but uniformly refused to receive what he won, esteeming it wrong to take any man's money without giving an equivalent.

In two or three instances he yielded to the fashionable folly of accepting a challenge to decide a controversy by single combat. In every such case he received the fire of his adversary, but would not return it. He once had a suit at law with the Judge of the Court of Vice-Admiralty, in which he resisted the claims of the royal government, which, by some recent regulations, were hostile to American rights. Mr. Laurens being cast, tendered to the Judge, Sir Egerton Leigh, his legal fees to a considerable sum. The Judge declined to receive them. Mr. Laurens, conceiving that he had no right to retain what was legally due from him, gave the same precise amount to the South Carolina Society, to be expended by them in charity. On another occasion, a sum of money came into his hands in some official character which had not been claimed. Under an impression that the money thus unclaimed was not his, he transferred it to the South Carolina Society, to be used by them as a fund of charity, till the owner called for it. No such call was then expected, or has yet been brought forward, though the deposit was made forty years ago.

Mr. Laurens once persuaded a favorite slave to give a reluctant consent to receive the small pox by inoculation, who, in consequence thereof, died. To comfort the deceased for the issue of an unfortunate experiment urged upon him, assurances were given to him in his dying moments that his children should be emancipated. This was accordingly done.

In the performance of his religious duties, Mr. Laurens was strict and exemplary. The emergency was great which kept him from church either forenoon or afternoon, and very great indeed which kept him from his regular monthly communion. With the bible he was intimately acquainted. Its doctrines he firmly believed; its precepts and history he admired, and was much in the habit of quoting and applying portions of it to present occurrences. He not only read the scriptures diligently to his family, but made all his children read them also. His family bible contained, in his own hand-writing, several of his remarks on passing providences. He used to observe that many passages of admired authors were borrowed either in matter or manner from sacred writ, and in support of this opinion, often quoted, among other examples, "God tempers the wind to the back of the shorn lamb," of Sterne, as an imitation of, "he stayeth his rough wind in the day of the east wind," of the prophet Isaiah; and the interesting "lovely young Lavinia," of Thompson, as a portrait of the bible Ruth by a modern hand, with a little alteration in the drapery. He frequently recommended the writings of Solomon as giving an excellent insight into human nature, and as aphorisms, the observance of which would make men both wise and happy.

Mr. Laurens having amassed a fortune far exceeding what was then common in America, and having lately lost his wife, gave up business, and in 1771, went to Europe to superintend the education of his sons. Soon after he had made arrangements for bringing them forward to the greatest advantage, the disputes began which finally severed the colonies from the parent State. He was one of the thirty-nine natives of America, who, in 1774, petitioned the British parliament not to pass the Boston port-bill. His utmost exertions were made to prevent the war; but finding that nothing short of the most degrading submission on the part of the colonies, would prevent it, he determined to return to Carolina and take part with his countrymen. Great interest was used to dissuade him from execut-

ing this resolution, and ample offers were made to indemnify him for all losses that might result from his remaining in England. To his mercantile friend, Mr. Oswald, one of the subsequent negotiators of peace, urging his stay, he replied from Falmouth, when on the point of embarking for Charlestown, as follows: "I shall never forget your friendly attention to my interest, but I dare not return. Your ministers are deaf to information, and seem bent on provoking unnecessary contest. I think I have acted the part of a faithful subject. I now go resolved still to labor for peace; at the same time, determined in the last event to stand or fall with my country." On his leaving England, he assured the numerous friends he left behind, that America would not submit to the claims of the British parliament: on his landing in Charlestown, in December, 1774, he assured his American friends that Britain would not yield to their demands, and that war was inevitable. His information was much relied on, and vigorous preparations for defense were made very early in 1775 by the Carolinians. The circumstance of his leaving England at this crisis to take part with his countrymen in their approaching arduous conflict, rivetted him in their esteem. They conferred many offices upon him. In the interval between the suspension of royal and the establishment of representative government, the executive department of the latter system, while in embryo, was administered by him as president of the council of safety, with a full impression that both his fortune and his life were staked on the result. His countrymen soon found that the well known activity of the merchant was transferred to the statesman, and that the public business was promptly and accurately dispatched. Soon after the establishment of a regular constitution in South Carolina, in 1776, he was elected a member of Congress, and shortly after he had taken his seat, was appointed President of that body. Two volumes of his official public letters as President remain in the archives of the old Congress. These are monuments of his talent for writing letters—of his industry and attention to the duties of his station. In that period the British commissioners arrived with the vain hope of inducing the Americans to rescind their alliance with France, and to resume the character of free British subjects. One of them, Governor Johnson, had private letters of introduction to Mr. Laurens. These were forwarded and brought on a correspondence long since made public, which was honorable to the American character. In December, 1778, Mr. Laurens resigned the chair of Congress, and thereupon received their thanks "for his conduct in the chair and in the execution of public business." He returned his grateful acknowledgments for the honor done him, which he observed "would be of service to his children." In the year following he was appointed minister plenipotentiary from the United States to Holland. In his way thither he was captured and carried to England, and there committed a prisoner to the tower of London, on suspicion of treason; and was officially mentioned by Sir Joseph York as "styling himself President of the pretended Congress." The commitment was accompanied with orders "to confine him a close prisoner—to be locked up every night—to be in the custody of two warders—not to suffer him to be out of their sight one moment, day or night—to allow him no liberty of speaking to any person, nor to permit any person to speak to him—to deprive him of the use of pen and ink—to suffer no letter to be brought to him, nor any to go from him." Mr. Laurens was then fifty-six years old, and severely afflicted with the gout and other infirmities. In this situation he was conducted to apartments in the tower, and was shut up in two small rooms, which, together, made about twenty feet square, with a warder for his constant companion, and a fixed bayonet under his window, without any friend to converse with, and without any prospect or even the means of correspondence. Being debarred the use of pen and ink, he procured pencils which proved an useful substitute. After a month's confinement, he was permitted to walk out on limited ground, but a warder with a sword in his hand followed close behind. This indulgence was occasionally taken for about three weeks, when Lord George Gordon, who was also a prisoner in the tower, unluckily met and asked Mr. Laurens to walk with him. Mr. Laurens declined the offer, and instantly returned to his apartment. Governor Gore caught at this transgression of orders, and locked him up for thirty-seven days, though the attending warder exculpated him from all blame.

About this time an old friend and mercantile correspondent, having solicited the Secretaries of State for Mr. Laurens' enlargement on parole, and having offered his whole fortune as security for his good conduct, sent him the following message: "Their lordships say if you will point out anything for the benefit of Great Britain in the present dispute with the colonies, you will be enlarged." This proposition filled him with indignation, and provoked a sharp reply.

The same friend soon after visited Mr. Laurens, and being left alone with him addressed him as follows: "I converse with you this morning, not particularly as

your friend but as the friend of Great Britain. I have certain propositions to make for obtaining your liberty, which I advise you should take time to consider." Mr. Laurens desired to know what they were, and added "that an honest man required no time to give an answer in a case where his honor was concerned." "If," said he, "the Secretaries of State will enlarge me upon parole, I will strictly conform to my engagement to do nothing directly or indirectly to the hurt of this kingdom. I will return to America, or remain in any part of England which may be assigned, and surrender myself when demanded." It was answered, "no sir, you must stay in London among your friends. The ministers will often have occasion to send for and consult you: you can write two or three lines to the ministers and barely say you are sorry for what is past. A pardon will be granted. Every man has been wrong at some time or other of his life, and should not be ashamed to acknowledge it." Mr. Laurens replied, "I will never subscribe to my own infamy and to the dishonor of my children."

Though Mr. Laurens was not allowed to see his own friends, pains were taken to furnish him with such newspapers from America as announced the successes of the British in South Carolina after the surrender of its capital in 1780—that the inhabitants had given up the contest, and generally taken British protection; and that the estates of Henry Laurens, and of the other obstinate rebels who still adhered to the ruined cause of independence, were under sequestration by the British conquerors. To such communications Mr. Laurens steadily replied, "none of these things move me."

In the year 1781, Lieutenant Colonel John Laurens, the eldest son of Henry Laurens, arrived in France as the special minister of Congress. The father was requested to write to the son to withdraw himself from the court of France, and assurances were given that it would operate in his favor. To these requests he replied, "my son is of age, and has a will of his own; if I should write to him in the terms you request it would have no effect; he would only conclude that confinement and persuasion had softened me. I know him to be a man of honor. He loves me dear and would lay down his life to save mine, but I am sure he would not sacrafice his honor to save my life: and I applaud him."

Mr Laurens pencilled an address to the Secretaries of State for the use of pen and ink to draw a bill of exchange on a merchant in London who was in his debt, for money to answer his immediate exigencies. This was delivered to their lordships, but they returned no answer though no provision was made for the support of their prisoner. Mr. Laurens was thus left to languish in confinement under many infirmities and without the means of applying his own resources on the spot for his immediate support.

As soon as Mr. Laurens had completed a year in the tower, he was called upon to pay £97 10s. sterling to two warders for attending on him. To which he replied, "I will not pay the warders whom I never employed and whose attendance I shall be glad to dispense with."

Three weeks after, the Secretaries of State consented that Mr. Laurens should have the use of pen and ink for the purpose of drawing a bill of exchange; but they were taken away the moment that business was done.

As the year 1781 drew near a close, Mr. Lauren's sufferings in the tower became generally known, and excited compassion in his favor, and odium against the authors of his confinement. It had also been found by the inefficacy of many attempts, that no concessions could be obtained from him. It was therefore resolved to release him, but difficulties arose about the mode. Mr. Laurens would not consent to any act which implied that he was a British subject, and he had been committed as such on a charge of high treason. Ministers, to extricate themselves from this difficulty, at length proposed to take bail for his appearance at the Court of King's Bench. When the words of the recognizance, "Our sovereign lord the King" were read to Mr. Laurens, he replied in open court, "Not my Sovereign," and with this declaration he, with Mr. Oswald and Mr. Anderson as his securities, entered into an obligation for his appearance at the Courts of King's Bench the next Easter term, and for not departing thence without leave of the court. Mr. Laurens was immediately released. When the time of his appearance at court drew near he was not only discharged from all obligations to attend, but was requested by Lord Shelburne to go to the continent in subserviency to a scheme for making peace with America. Mr. Laurens was startled at the idea of being released without any equivalent, as he had uniformly held himself to be a prisoner-of-war. From a high sense of personal independence, and unwillingness to be brought under an apparent obligation, he replied, "That he durst not accept himself as a gift; and that as Congress had once offered Lieutenant-General Burgoyne for him, he had no doubt of their now giving Lieutenant-General Earl Cornwallis for the same purpose."

The contrast between this close confinement in the tower for more than fourteen months, and the active life to which Mr. Laurens had been accustomed, so far undermined his constitution that he never afterwards enjoyed good health. Soon after his release he received a commission from Congress to be one of their ministers to negotiate a peace with Great Britain. He repaired to Paris, and there, in conjunction with Dr. Franklin, John Adams, and John Jay, signed the preliminaries of peace on the 30th of November, 1782, by which the independence of the United States was acknowledged. Mr. Laurens soon after returned to Carolina. His countrymen, well pleased with his conduct, stood ready to honor him with every mark of distinction in their power to confer; but he declined all solicitations to suffer himself to be elected either Governor, member of Congress, or of the State Legislature. When the project of a general convention was under consideration for revising the federal bond of union, he was, without his permission, elected one of its members, but declined serving. He retired from all public business, and amused himself with agricultural experiments, and promoting the happiness of his children. domestics,* friends and neighbors. His health, which had long been delicate, gradually declined, and on the 8th of December, 1792, near the close of his 69th year, he expired. His will concluded with these words: "I solemnly enjoin it on my son as an indispensable duty, that, as soon as he conveniently can after my decease, he cause my body to be wrapped in twelve yards of tow cloth, and burnt until it be entirely consumed, and then collecting my bones, deposit them wherever he may think proper." This request was fulfilled.

JOHN LAURENS,

Son of Henry Laurens, was born in Charlestown in 1755. His early education was conducted by Benjamin Lord, Rev. Messrs. Himeli and Panton. In youth he discovered that energy of character that distinguished him through life. When a lad, though laboring under a fever, on the cry of fire he leaped from his bed, hastened to the scene of danger, and was in a few minutes on the top of the exposed houses, risking his life to arrest the progress of the flames. This is the more worthy of notice, for precisely in the same way, and under a similar, but higher impulse of ardent patriotism, he lost his life in the year 1781.

At the age of sixteen he was taken to Europe by his father, and there put under the best means of instruction in Geneva. and afterwards in London.

In the course of his youthful studies he united the plodding diligence of the mere scholar and the refinement of the gentleman. By a judicious distribution of his time, and doing with his might whatever he engaged in, he acquired as much solid useful learning as could be expected from one, who, immuring himself in the walls of a college, renounced society; and at the same time as many accomplishments as are usually attained by those who, neglecting all study, aim at nothing more than the exterior polish of an elegant education. In classical learning, the French and Italian languages, mathematics, philosophy, geography, history, and the ordinary circle of sciences, he was an adept; and also excelled in drawing, dancing, fencing, riding, and all the graces and refined manners of a man of fashion. He was entered a student of law at the temple in 1774. and was daily improving in legal knowledge till the disputes between Great Britain and her colonies arrested his attention. He soon found that the claims of the mother country struck at the root of liberty in the colonies, and that she perseveringly resolved to enforce these claims at every hazard. Fain would he have come out to join his countrymen in arms at the commencement of the contest; but the peremptory order of his father enjoined his continuance in England, to prosecute his studies and finish his education. As a dutiful son he obeyed these orders; but as a patriot burning with desire to defend his country, he dismissed Coke, Littleton, and all the tribe of jurists, and substituted in their place Vauban, Folard, and other writers on war. He also availed himself of the excellent opportunities which London affords of acquiring practical knowledge in the manual exercise, of tactics, and the mechanism of war. Thus instructed, as soon as he was a freeman of legal age, he quitted England for France, and by a circuitous voyage in neutral vessels, and at a considerable risk, made his way good in the year 1777 to Charlestown. Independence had been declared; the American army was raised, officered, and in the field. He who by his attainments in general science, and

* Mr. Laurens' treatment of his domestics was highly commendable. He was strict in making them do their proper business, and enforced among them the observance of decency, order and morality; but amply supplied their wants, and freely contributed to their comforts. Few laborers in any country had more of the enjoyments of life than the cultivators of his grounds. They accordingly lived long, and their natural increase was great. To their religious instructions he was also attentive.

particularly in the military art, deserved high rank, had no ordinary door left open to serve his country but by entering in the lowest grade of an army abounding with officers. General Washington, ever attentive to merit, instantly took him into his family as a supernumerary aid-de-camp. Shortly after this appointment, he had an opportunity of indulging his military ardor. He fought and was wounded in the battle of Germantown, October 4th, 1777. He continued in General Washington's family in the middle States till the British had retreated from Philadelphia to New York; and was engaged in the battle of Monmouth, June 28, 1778. After this, the war being transferred more northwardly, he was indulged in attaching himself to the army on Rhode Island, where the most active operations were expected soon to take place. There he was intrusted with the command of some light troops. The bravery and good conduct which he displayed on this occasion was honored by Congress. On the 5th of November, 1778, they resolved "That John Laurens, Esq., aid-de-camp to General Washington, be presented with a continental commission of Lieutenant-Colonel, in testimony of the sense which Congress entertain of his patriotic and spirited services as a volunteer in the American army; and of his brave conduct in several actions, particularly in that of Rhode Island, on the 29th of August last; and that General Washington be directed, whenever an opportunity shall offer, to give Lieutenant-Colonel Laurens command agreeable to his rank." On the next day a letter from Lieutenant-Colonel Laurens was read in Congress, expressing "his gratitude for the unexpected honor which Congress were pleased to confer on him by the resolution passed the day before; and the high satisfaction it would have afforded him, could he have accepted it without injuring the rights of the officers in the line of the army, and doing an evident injustice to his colleagues in the family of the Commander-in-Chief; that having been a spectator of the convulsions occasioned in the army by disputes of rank, he held the tranquility of it too dear to be instrumental in disturbing it and therefore entreated Congress to suppress the resolve of yesterday, ordering him a commission of Lieutenant-Colonel, and to accept his sincere thanks for the intended honor." In this relinquishment there was a victory gained by patriotism over self-love. Lieutenant-Colonel Laurens loved military fame and rank; but he loved his country more, and sacrificed the former to preserve the peace and promote the interest of the latter.

In the next year the British directed their military operations chiefly against the most Southern States. Lieutenant-Colonel John Laurens was induced by double motives to repair to Carolina. The post of danger was always the object of his preference. His native State was become the theatre of war. To its aid he repaired, and in May, 1779, with a party of light troops, had a skirmish with the British at Tulifinny. In endeavoring to obstruct their progress towards Charlestown, he received a wound. This was no sooner cured than he rejoined the army, and was engaged in the unsuccessful attack on Savannah on the 9th of October of the same year. To prepare for the defense of Charlestown, the reduction of of which was known to be contemplated by the British, was the next object of attention among the Americans. To this Colonel Laurens devoted all the energies of his active mind. In the progress of the siege which commenced in 1780, the success of defensive operations became doubtful. Councils of war were frequent; several of the citizens were known to wish for a surrender, as a termination of their toils and dangers. In these councils, and on proper occasions, Colonel Laurens advocated the abandonment of the front lines, and to retire to new ones to be erected within the old ones, and to risk an assault. When these spirited measures were opposed, on the suggestion that the inhabitants preferred a capitulation, he declared that he would direct his sword to the heart of the first citizen who would urge a capitulation against the opinion of the Commander-in-Chief. When his superior officers, convinced of the inefficacy of further resistance, were disposed to surrender on terms of capitulation, he yielded to the necessity of the case and became a prisoner-of-war. This reverse of fortune opened a new door for serving his country in a higher line than he ever yet had done. He was soon exchanged and reinstated in a capacity for acting. In expediting his exchange, Congress had the ulterior view of sending him as a special minister to Paris, that he might urge the necessity of a vigorous co-operation on the part of France with the United States, against Great Britain. When this was proposed to Colonel Laurens, he recommended and urged that Colonel Alexander Hamilton should be employed in preference to himself. Congress adhered to their first choice. Colonel Laurens sailed for France in the latter end of 1780, and there, in conjunction with Dr. Franklin and Count De Vergenness and Marquis De Castries, arranged the plan of the campaign for 1781; which eventuated in the surrender of Lord Cornwallis, and finally in a termination of the war. Within six months from the day Colonel Laurens left America, he returned to it and brought with

him the concerted plan of combined operations. Arrived to rejoin the army, he was indulged with making a verbal report of his negotiations to Congress, and in three days set out to resume his place as one of the aids of General Washington. The American and French army about this time commenced the siege of Yorktown. In the course of it, Colonel Laurens, as second in command with his fellow aid, Colonel Hamilton, assisted in storming and taking an advanced British redoubt, which expedited the surrender of Lord Cornwallis. The articles of capitulation were arranged by Colonel Laurens on behalf of the Americans. Charlestown and a part of South Carolina still remained in the power of the British. Colonel Laurens thought nothing done while anything remained undone. He therefore, on the surrender of Lord Cornwallis, repaired to South Carolina to assist in recovering the State. Before he entered on active military duty, he obeyed the call of his country to serve as a representative to the State Legislature, which was convened in January, 1782, at Jacksonborough, within thirty-five miles of Charlestown, which was at that time a British garrison. His eloquence was then put in requisition for the public service. He was the advocate of every energetic measure of defense and offense, but declined all civil honors; preferring to serve his country in the field. His legislative duty being over, he joined the southern army, commanded by General Greene. In the course of the summer of 1782 he caught a common fever, and was sick in bed, when an expedition was undertaken against a party of the British which had gone to Combakee to carry off rice. Colonel Laurens rose from his sick bed and joined his countrymen. While leading an advanced party, he received a shot which on the 27th of August, 1782, at the close of the war, put an end to his valuable life in the twenty-seventh year of his age. His many virtues have been ever since the subject of eulogy, and his early fall of national lamentation. The fourth of July seldom passes without a tribute to his memory.

GABRIEL MANIGAULT,

Was born in the year 1704. Both his parents were French Protestant refugees, who, in consequence of the revocation of the edict of Nantz in 1685, determined to leave France. Their marriage took place in Charlestown about the year 1699. Their son Gabriel was born and resided there the whole of his life, which was seventy-seven years, with the exception of a voyage to the West Indies. The prominent traits in his character were integrity and benevolence. His regard to justice was almost romantic. His charity was always exercised whenever an opportunity offered. He generally had pensioners who received his bounty at stated periods. At his death he left to the South Carolina Society of Charlestown a legacy of £5,000 sterling, from the interest of which the society has been enabled to add very considerably to the number of children educated on its bounty. In his transactions as a merchant he was candid, fair and honorable. All his contracts were performed with such exactness and punctuality, that the same confidence was placed in his word as on his bond. He had many solicitations to engage in the slave trade, which was pre-eminently lucrative; but he declined all agency in transferring the subjects of that trade from the land of their nativity to a foreign country. He was nevertheless no advocate for emancipating those which were already in Carolina. He was a planter, as well as a merchant, and owned negroes. These were treated with great humanity. This was well known to his friends and neighbors, and by an accidental circumstance has become indirectly a matter of record. The great proof of the good treatment of negroes is their natural increase. In an examination, in the year 1790, before a committee of the House of Commons in England, appointed to ascertain the treatment of slaves in the British colonies, it was given in evidence by John Savage, that in thirty-eight years the slaves of Gabriel Manigault had increased in the low country of Carolina from 86 to 270, without any aid from purchases, other than replacing twelve or fourteen old slaves with the same number of young ones.

Mr. Manigault was treasurer of the province, and faithfully discharged the duties thereof in and after the year 1740, when all the intricate accounts of the unfortunate expedition against St. Augustine were the subject of fiscal examination.

He was also for some time a representative of Charlestown in the provincial House of Commons. Though he never courted popularity, he was so much a favorite that in a contested election the mechanics walked in procession to the place of voting, and by their unanimous ballot turned the election in his favor. No man could engage with more ardor in public undertakings than he did. His name was generally to be found on the lists of those who were charged with the executions of such projects. In the attempts to introduce the making of silk and

wine in Carolina he was very active. He was for many years vice-president of the Library Society, the Governor being president; and he felt so interested in the success of that institution, that he leased to them, free of expense for twenty-one years, the upper rooms of two adjoining tenements belonging to him, which were thrown into one, and formed a spacious apartment for their books and another for the librarian.

In the discharge of his religious duties, Mr. Manigault was most exemplary. Being descended from French parents, he was by birth a member of the French Calvinistic church in Charlestown, of which he was always a most zealous supporter. He was nevertheless a steady communicant, and a regular attendant, both forenoon and afternoon, on divine service in St. Phillip's church.

At the breaking out of the American war he was above the age of man; of course no personal assistance could be expected from him by his fellow citizens; but his pecuniary aid was not wanting, and he showed his attachment to and confidence in the new government by loaning to the State of South Carolina $220,000. When General Prevost made an incursion into South Carolina, and appeared before the lines of Charlestown in May, 1779, Mr. Manigault was past seventy-five; notwithstanding which, he determined that the place of his nativity should not fall without some exertion, however feeble, on his part. He equipped himself as a soldier, caused his grandson, Joseph Manigault, then only fifteen, to do the same; and taking him by the hand to the lines in the face of the enemy, from whom an attack was every moment expected, offered their services in defense of the city. In two years after this demonstration of attachment to the land of his nativity and the asylum of his persecuted parents, he departed this life. In the course of more than fifty years devoted to commercial pursuits, he honestly acquired a fortune very little, if anything, short of half a million of dollars, though he had given away considerable sums in charity and liberality. His house and table were always open to his friends, and the civilities of hospitality were by him liberally and extensively bestowed on strangers.

PETER MANIGAULT,

The only child of Gabriel Manigault, was born in Charlestown in 1731. At sixteen he was placed with Mr. Corbett, and in two years after accompanied him to England, where he lived with him some time, and afterwards took chambers in the Inner Temple, of which he was a member. He was admitted a barrister in England, after having pursued his studies with unusual application. He returned to Carolina in 1754, and commenced the practice of law; but after a few years declined it. Though he had retired from the bar, his professional advice was always at the service of the necessitous. Many were the instances of his assisting those who could not pay for it elsewhere. He became early in life a member of the Commons House of Assembly, and by his eloquence and attention to business, acquired in a short time a large share of influence. In opposing the Stamp Act, and the other assumptions of power by the British Parliament over the colonies, he took a decided part. His zeal and patriotism were so well received by his countrymen, that in 1766 he was advanced to the office of Speaker of the House, and as such signed every law that was passed subsequent to his election as Speaker, and previous to the revolution which took place nine years after. In this eventful period, when the seeds of the revolution were sown, he so ably advocated the claims of his country that no doubt can exist that he would have been a distinguished revolutionary patriot, if his life had been spared. He died in 1773, the very year when the Bostonians destroyed the dutied tea, which deed gave occasion to those acts of the British Parliament which caused the American Revolution. By his early death at the age of forty-two, he was exempted from all the buffetings of the revolutionary storm, to the raising of which he had largely contributed. He was an elegant classical scholar, an eloquent public speaker, and possessed an inexhaustible fund of wit. Many of his repartees and other effusions of a brilliant imagination, are still remembered and often quoted by the few companions of his social hours who still survive.

THOMAS REESE, D. D.,

Was born in Pennsylvania, in 1742. When young he came with his parents to North Carolina, and commenced his classical studies in Mecklenburg county with the Rev. Dr. Joseph Alexander and Mr. Benedict, who were at the head of a grammar school in that county, which was then the only one within the distance of 100 miles. He finished his education at Princeton college, and graduated there in 1768. After a proper course of theological studies, he commenced preacher,

and settled in the church of Salem, on Black river in South Carolina. During a twenty years residence there, he pursued his studies with an ardor and diligence that has never been exceeded in Carolina. He amassed a large fund of useful knowledge in divinity, moral philosophy, and other branches of science auxiliary to the formation of a complete theologian. He there began and completed his admired essay on the influence of religion in civil society. He pursued his argument through a variety of relations, and demonstrated from reason and history that all human institutions are in their own nature, and have ever been found in practice insufficient for preserving peace and order among mankind, without the sanctions of religion. The execution of the work would have been reputable to the pen of Warburton; but coming from the woods of Carolina, and an unknown writer, it fell still-born from the press in Charlestown. Its fate would probably have been different if it had come from the east side of the Atlantic, and made its appearance with the name of some European divine. It is preserved in Carey's American Museum, and will be an honorable testimony to posterity of the literature of Carolina in 1788. It procured for the author the well merited degree of D. D. from Princeton college; which, as far as can be recollected, is the first instance in which that degree had ever been conferred on a Carolinian. Dr. Reese continued to write; but not able to bear the expense of publishing for public benefit printed nothing further. Two of his sermons were nevertheless published, but neither by him nor for him, in the collection called American preacher. Circular letters about the year 1790 were written by the editor. Mr. Austin, to the clergy of all denominations in the United States, requesting them to furnish at least two sermons annually, that a selection might be made from time to time, and published as a specimen of pulpit eloquence in the United States. To the four volumes of this miscellany printed in New Jersey, Dr. Reese appears as the only contributor to the southward of Virginia.

Dr. Reese pursued his studies with an intenseness that injured his health For his recovery he was induced to accept an invitation to the pastoral care of a congregation in Pendleton district. There he expired in 1796, leaving behind him the character of a distinguished scholar, and an eminently pious man.

COL. WILLIAM RHETT,

Was born in London, in the year 1666, and came to Carolina in 1694, with his wife and one child. They had six children born in Charlestown, and one of them when Mrs. Rhett was in her fiftieth year. About ten years after Colonel Rhett's arrival a pressing call was made on him for the defense of his adopted country. He was then Colonel of the militia; but it was determined, as has been already related, that he should attack the invading French and Spanish forces before they came up to town. Governor Johnson appointed him Vice-Admiral of a fleet consisting of six small merchant ships then in the harbor, on which some great guns were hastily mounted. With this force he proceeded towards the bar to engage the invaders which lay at anchor within it. On his approach they put out to sea. In a few days information was received that a ship of force was seen in Sewee bay, and that a number of men had landed from her. A party of the militia was ordered to attack those who had landed, and Admiral Rhett to go around by water and attack the ship from which they had landed. Both succeeded. The ship, without firing a gun, struck, and was brought into Charlestown with about ninety prisoners. This was to Rhett a bloodless victory; but in the year 1718 he was called to execute a much more difficult enterprise. The pirates were then so bold and troublesome that the port of Charlestown was in a great measure blockaded. They took possession of the mouth of Cape Fear river, made a refuge of it, and from it came in succession, to take vessels on their approach to the bar of Charlestown. Governor Johnson fitted out a ship of force, gave the command of it to Col. Rhett, and sent him to sea for the protection of trade. On his approaching the bar, Steed Bonnett, who commanded a piratical sloop in the vicinity, fled to Cape Fear river. Thither Rhett followed, and after a severe engagement, in which he was wounded, took the sloop, its commander, and crew, and brought them to Charlestown. Such signal services increased the popularity of Rhett. He was a man of cool determined courage, and well qualified to command either by land or water. He was Collector of the port, and also Receiver General When the revolution from proprietary to regal government took place in 1719, Rhett had the address to keep so far in with both parties as to retain all his places. The revolutioners added two new offices to those he formerly held. They appointed him Lieutenant-General of the militia, and Inspector General of the works for repairing the fortifications. He was afterwards appointed Governor of the Bahamas, but before he entered on the duties of that office he died, in 1722, of an

apoplexy. Men of his decided courage and conduct, were eminently useful in the first period of colonization. His son married Chief Justice Trott's daughter. Though the fathers of this pair were the most distinguished Carolinians of their day, the names of both are extinct, except that the name of Rhett is still retained as an appendage to another. There are many descendants of Rhett in North and South Carolina and England; but all, as far as is known, in the female line. To him the Carolinians are much indebted. The services he rendered them were great on many occasions; but particularly in repelling the invasion of 1704, and breaking up the pirates in 1718. The plate now used for the communion service in St. Philip's, was a present from Col. Rhett.

JOHN RUTLEDGE,

Was born in the year 1739, and was the son of Dr. John Rutledge who, with his brother Andrew, both natives of Ireland, arrived in Carolina about the year 1735, and there practiced, the one law, and the other physic. Dr. Rutledge married Miss Hext, who, in the 15th year of her age gave birth to the subject of this memoir. At a very early period she was left a widow, and added one to the many examples of illustrious matrons who, devoting their whole attention to their orphan offspring, have brought forward distinguished ornaments of human nature.

The early education of John Rutledge was conducted by David Rhind, an excellent classical scholar, and one of the most successful of the early instructors of youth in Carolina. After he had made considerable progress in the Latin and Greek classics, he entered on the study of law with James Parsons, and was afterwards entered a student in the temple, and proceeding barrister, came out to Charlestown and commenced the practice of law in 1761. One of the first causes in which he engaged, was an action for breach of a promise of marriage. The subject was interesting, and gave an excellent opportunity for displaying his talents. It was improved, and his eloquence astonished all who heard him.

Instead of rising by degrees to the head of his profession, he burst forth at once the able lawyer and accomplished orator. Business flowed in upon him. He was employed in the most difficult causes, and retained with the largest fees that were usually given. The client in whose service he engaged, was supposed to be in a fair way of gaining his cause. He was but a short time in practice, when that cloud began to lower which, in the course of ten or twelve years, burst forth in a revolutionary storm. In the year 1764 Governor Boone refused to administer to Christopher Gadsden the oaths which the law required every person returned as a member in the Commons House of Assembly to take, before he entered on his legislative functions. This kindled the indignation of the House as being an interference with their constitutional privileges as the sole judges of the qualifications of their own members. In rousing the Assembly and the people to resist all interferences of the royal Governors, in deciding who should, or who should not be members of the Commons House of Assembly, John Rutledge kindled a spark which has never since been extinguished.

The controversy was scarcely ended when the memorable stamp act was passed. The British colonies were then detached from each other and had never acted in concert. A proposition was made by the Assembly of Massachusetts to the different provincial assemblies for appointing committees from each to meet in Congress as a rallying point of union. To this novel project many objections were made; some doubted its legality, others its expedience, and most its efficiency. To remove objections—to conciliate opposition, and to gain the hearty concurrence of the Assembly and the people, was no easy matter. In accomplishing these objects, the abilities of John Rutledge were successfully exerted. Objections vanished—prejudices gave way before his eloquence. The public mind was illuminated, and a more correct mode of thinking took place. A vote for appointing deputies to a continental Congress was carried in South Carolina at an early day, and before it had been agreed to by the neighboring States. Christopher Gadsden, Thomas Lynch, and John Rutledge, were appointed. The last was the youngest, and had very lately began to tread the threshhold of manhood. When this first Congress met in New York in 1765, the members of the distant provinces were surprised at the eloquence of the young member from Carolina. In the means of education that province was far behind those to the northward. Of it little more was known or believed than that it produced rice and indigo, and contained a large proportion of slaves, and a handful of free men, and that most of the latter were strangers to vigorous health—all self-indulgent, and none accustomed to active exertions either of mind or body. From such a province nothing great was expected. A respectable committee of its Assembly and the distinguished abili-

ties of one of them who was among the youngest members of the Congress, produced at this first general meeting of the colonies more favorable ideas of South Carolina than had hitherto prevailed.

After the repeal of the stamp act, John Rutledge was for some years no further engaged in politics than as a lawyer and a member of the Provincial Legislature. In both capacities he was admired as a public speaker. His ideas was clear and strong—his utterance rapid but distinct—his voice, action, and energetic manner of speaking, forcibly impressed his sentiments on the minds and hearts of all who heard him. At reply he was quick—instantly comprehended the force of an objection—and saw at once the best mode of weakening or repelling it. He successfully used both argument and wit for invalidating the observations of his adversary; by the former he destroyed or weakened their force; by the latter he placed them in so ludicrous a point of light that it often convinced, and scarcely ever failed of conciliating and pleasing his hearers. Many were the triumphs of his eloquence at the bar and in the Legislature; and in the former case probably more than strict impartial justice would sanction; for Judges and juries, counsel and audience, hung on his accents.

In or after the year 1774 a new and more extensive field was opened before him. When news of the Boston port-bill reached Charlestown, a general meeting of the inhabitants was called by expresses sent over the State. After the proceedings of the British Parliament were stated to this convention of the province, sundry propositions were offered for consideration. To the appointment of delegates for a general Congress, no objection was made. But this was followed by propositions for instructing them how far they might go in pledging the province to support the Bostonians. Such a discordance of opinion was discovered as filled the minds of the friends of liberty with apprehensions that the meeting would prove abortive. In this crisis John Rutledge, in a most eloquent speech, advocated a motion which he brought forward to give no instructions whatever; but to invest the men of their choice with full authority to concur in any measure they thought best; and to pledge the people of South Carolina to abide by whatever they would agree to. He demonstrated that anything less than plenary discretion to this extent would be unequal to the crisis. To those who, after stating the dangers of such extensive powers, begged to be informed what must be done in case the delegates made a bad use of their unlimited authority to pledge the State to any extent, a laconic answer was returned: "Hang them." An impression was made on the multitude. Their minds were subdued by the decision of the proposed measure, and the energy with which it was supported. On that day and by this vote the revolution was virtually accomplished. By it the people of Carolina determined to be free, deliberately invested five men of their choice as their representatives with full powers to act for them and to take charge of their political interests. Royal government received a mortal wound and the representative system was planted in its stead. The former lingered for a few months and then expired. The latter instantly took root, and has ever since continued to grow and flourish. An election immediatly followed. The mover of this spirited resolution his brother, Edward Rutledge, Christopher Gadsden, Thomas Lynch, and Henry Middleton, were elected. Furnished with such ample powers they took their seats in Congress under great advantages, and by their conduct justified the confidence reposed in them. John Rutledge was continued by successive elections a member of Congress till the year 1776. He returned to Charlestown in the beginning of that year, and was elected President and Commander-in-Chief of Carolina, in conformity to a constitution established by the people on the 26th of March, 1776. His duties henceforward were executive. He employed himself diligently in arranging the new government, and particularly in preparing for the defense of the State against an expected invasion of the British. Their attack on Sullivan's Island has already been related. On this occasion John Rutledge rendered his country important service. General Lee, who commanded the continental troops, pronounced Sullivan's Island to be a "slaughter pen" and either gave orders or was disposed to give orders for its evacuation. The zeal of the State, and the energy of its chief magistrate, prevented this measure. Carolina had raised troops before Congress had declared independence. These remained subject to the authority of the State, and were at this early period not immediately under the command of the officers of Congress. To prevent the evacuation of the fort on Sullivan's Island, John Rutledge, shortly before the commencement of the action on the 28th of June, 1776, wrote the following laconic note to General Moultrie, who commanded on the island: "General Lee wishes you to evacuate the fort. You will not without an order from me. I would sooner cut off my hand than write one.

J. RUTLEDGE."

The successful issue of the defense has been already related. The conse-

quences which would probably have followed from the evacuation of the fort, may in some measures be conjectured from the events of 1780, when the British, grown wiser, passed the same fort without engaging.

John Rutledge continued in the office of President till March, 1778, when he resigned. The occasion and reasons of his resignation are matters of general history. This did not diminish his popularity. Of this the Legislature gave the strongest proof; for the next election he was reinstated in the executive authority of the State, but under a new constitution and with the name of Governor substituted in the place of President. He had scarcely entered on the duties of this office, when the country was invaded by the British General Prevost. The exertions made by Governor Rutledge to repel this invasion—to defend Charlestown in the years 1779, 1780—to procure the aid of Congress and of the adjacent States, to drive the tide of British conquest, to recover the State, and to revive its suspended legislative and judicial powers, have all been particularly related in their proper places. On the termination of his executive duties in 1782, he was elected and served as a member of Congress till 1783. In this period he was called upon to perform an extraordinary duty. The surrender of Lord Cornwallis in October, 1781, seemed to paralyze the exertions of the States. Thinking the war and all danger to be over, they no longer acted with suitable vigor. Congress fearing that this languor would encourage Great Britain to recommence the war, sent deputations of their members to rouse the States to a sense of their danger and duty. On the 22d of May, 1782, John Rutledge and George Clymer were sent in this character and instructed "to make such representation to the several States southward of Philadelphia as were best adapted to their respective circumstances and the present situations of public affairs, and as might induce them to carry the requisitions of Congress into effect with the greatest dispatch." They were permitted to make a personal address to the Virginia Assembly. In the execution of this duty John Rutledge drew such a picture of the United States, and of the danger to which they were exposed by the backwardness of the particular States to comply with the requisitions of Congress, as produced a very happy effect. The addresser acquitted himself with so much ability that the Virginians, who, not without reason, are proud of their statesmen and orators, began to doubt whether their Patrick Henry or the Carolina Rutledge was the most accomplished public speaker.

Soon after the termination of Mr. Rutledge's congressional duties he was appointed Minister Plenipotentiary from the United States to Holland, but declined to serve.

In the year 1784 he was elected a Judge of the court of chancery in South Carolina. The events of the late war had greatly increased the necessity for such a court. John Rutledge draughted the bill for organizing it on a new plan, and in it introduced several of the provisions which have been already mentioned as improvements on the English court of the same name. Mr. Rutledge's public duties hitherto had been either legislative or executive. They were henceforward judicial. If comparisons were proper it might be added that he was most at home in the latter. His knowledge of the law was profound; but the talent which preeminently fitted him for dispensing justice was a comprehensive mind, which could at once take into view all the bearings and relations of a complicated case. When the facts were all fairly before him, he promptly knew what justice required. The pleadings of lawyers gratified their clients, but rarely cast any light on the subject which had not already presented itself to his own view. Their declamations and addresses to the passions were lost on him. Truth and justice were the pole-stars by which his decisions were regulated. He speedily resolved the most intricate cases—pursued general principles through their various modifications till they led to the fountain of justice. His decrees were so luminous, and the grounds of them so clearly expressed, that the defeated party was generally satisfied.

In the year 1787 he was called upon to assist in framing a national constitution in lieu of the advisory system of the confederation. In arranging the provisions of that bond of union, and in persuading his countrymen to accept it, he was eminently useful. As soon as it was in operation, he was designated by President Washington as first Associate Judge of the Supreme Court of the United States. In this office he served till 1791, when he was elected Chief Justice of South Carolina. He was afterwards appointed Chief Justice of the United States. Thus, for more than thirty years, with few and short intervals, he served his country in one or other of the departments of government; and in all with fidelity and ability. In the friendly competitions of the States for the comparative merits of their respective statesmen and orators, while Massachusetts boasts of her John Adams, Connecticut of her Ellsworth, New York of her Jay, Pennsylvania of her

Wilson, Delaware of her Bayard, Virginia of her Henry. South Carolina rests her claims on the talents and eloquence of John Rutledge. This illustrious man closed his variegated career in the year 1800.

EDWARD RUTLEDGE,

The son of Dr. John Rutledge, was born about the year 1750. He received his classical education in Charlestown under David Smith, A. M., of New Jersey college, who was an able instructor in the learned languages. On finishing his classical education he studied law with his elder brother John Rutledge. In a due course of time he was entered a student in the temple, and proceeding barrister returned to Charlestown and commenced the practice of law in 1773. The high character of John Rutledge raised the expectations of the public that his brother would support the reputation of the name and family; nor were they disappointed. His eloquence was great, but not precisely in the same line with his brother's. Demosthenes seemed to be the model of the one, Cicero of the other. The eloquence of the elder like a torrent bore down all opposition, and controlled the passions of the hearers—that of the younger was soothing, persuasive, and made willing proselytes. In the practice of law, Edward Rutledge was directed by the most upright and generous principles. To advance his personal interest was a secondary object; to do good, promote peace, to heal breaches, to advance justice, was a primary one. His powers of persuasion were not to be purchased to shield oppression or to support iniquity. Where he thought his client had justice on his side, he would go all lengths in vindicating his claims; but would not support any man, however liberal, in prosecuting unfounded claims, or resisting those that were substantially just. He abhorred the principle that an advocate should take all advantages for his client, and gain whatever he could for him, whether right or wrong; or, on the other hand, to assist him with all the quirks and quibbles which ingenuity can contrive, or the forms of law permit for defeating or delaying the claims of substantial justice.

Such honorable principles, connected with such splendid talents, procured for him the love and esteem of all good men. In the second year after Edward Rutledge commenced practice, he was called to represent his country in the Congress which met at Philadelphia in September, 1774. He and John Jay, of New York, were nearly of an age, and the two youngest members of that honorable body. In this station Mr. Edward Rutledge continued for nearly three years. Throughout that period he was one of the most influential members. He had much of the esteem and confidence of Washington, and was often requested by him to bring forward particular measures, for the adoption of which the General was anxious.

Edward Rutledge has the honor of being one of the four members who signed the Declaration of Independence in behalf of South Carolina. His protracted absence from home, and continued attention to public business was no small sacrifice. His talents and popularity would have commanded the first practice at the bar; but he loved his country too well to be influenced by pecuniary considerations to neglect its interests. In the year 1779 he was again appointed member of Congress; but on his way thither was seized with an obstinate tedious fever, which prevented his proceeding to the seat of their deliberation. In addition to his civil employments Edward Rutledge held a commission in the militia, and regularly rose through all grades of rank in the Charlestown battalion of artillery to the rank of its Lieutenant-Colonel. In the year 1779, when the British were defeated and driven from Port Royal island, he as Captain commanded a company of artillerists which earned its full share of the glory of that victory.

In the year 1780 he became a prisoner of war, and as such was sent to St. Augustine, where he was confined for eleven months and on his exchange, delivered above eight hundred miles from his home and friends. He embraced the first opportunity of returning to Carolina, but could not approach Charlestown, for it was a British garrison. He was elected and served in the Jacksonborough Assembly in 1782, and afterwards in the Privy Council of the State; and in both rendered essential service to his country, but was obliged to lead a desultory life till the evacuation of Charlestown in December, 1782. When that event took place he returned to his proper home after an exile of nearly three years. He had set out with the most brilliant professional prospects; but the revolution deprived him for eight of the best years of his life from reaping the reward justly due to the studies of his youth. For the seventeen succeeding years he followed his profession, and at the same time served in the Legislature. Though a private member, he by his persuasive eloquence, directed most of the important measures adopted in that period for the improvement of the country. Many were the

points which his eloquence either carried through or defeated in the Legislature. For the good obtained and the evil prevented, his memory will be long respected by his countrymen. His persuasive eloquence will in like manner be held up as a model for young public speakers to form themselves upon. Though Mr. Edward Rutledge from the year 1783, had withdrawn from the public life on a national scale, he was never absent from the public service. He was too much absorbed in his country's welfare to look with indifference on the course of her public affairs. He kept up a constant correspondence with his friends and particularly his nephew John Rutledge, in Congress. His opinions were much respected and had great influence with a new set of members who took up the same national concerns in their progress which he had directed in their origin. He wanted no offices from the government, but ardently wished to see its national interests judiciously managed for public good. In moderating those collisions which in Carolina too often produce duels, Mr. Edward Rutledge had great address. His opinions as a man of honor were appreciated by all parties, and being impartial, seldom failed of bringing around those explanations which, without degrading, were satisfactory. As a lawyer and a gentleman he was justly entitled to the honorable appellation of a peace-maker. He was eminently the friend of the distressed, and thought nothing too much for their accommodation and relief. The talents of few were estimated equally high. The virtues of none attracted a greater proportion of public love and esteem. In the last year of his life he was elected Governor of the State, and died in January, 1800, when in the discharge of the duties of that exalted station.

REV. JOSIAH SMITH, A. M.,

Was born in Charlestown in 1704. He was the grandson of Thomas Smith, who has already been mentioned as Landgrave and Governor of the province, and the son of George Smith, who died at the age of 79, and the father of Josiah Smith, the present cashier of the branch of the national bank in Charlestown, who, in the 78th year of his age, ably performs the laborious duties of that office, requiring a clear head and an accurate knowledge of business and accounts. Of these three successive generations, all born in Charlestown, the subject of this memoir was the youngest, though he attained to the age of 77.

The deceased Josiah Smith was the first native of Carolina who obtained a degree from a college; and he with three others, Lieutenant-Governor William Bull, Dr. John Moultrie, and Rev. John Osgood, of Dorchester, were all the natives who obtained that honor for the first ninety years which followed the settlement of South Carolina. Shortly after the year 1725 when Mr. Smith graduated in Cambridge college near Boston, he commenced preacher. He and the Rev. John Osgood were the only natives of the province, as far as can be recollected, who were ordained ministers prior to the American revolution. Mr. Smith was a public preacher for fifty years, and an author for forty-five. He was the only native Carolinian who was a theological author prior to the American war.* Mr. Smith was a respectable preacher, a learned divine, and a writer of considerable reputation. His ministerial functions were at different periods performed in Bermuda at Cainhoy, and in Charlestown. About the year 1729 he maintained a learned disputation with the Rev. Mr. Fisher, on the right of private judgment. When the Rev. George Whitfield was forbidden to preach in the Episcopal churches Mr. Smith opened to him his church, then called the white meeting or Independent Congregational Church, and declared to the world his decided approbation of the character and doctrines of Mr. Whitfield in a sermon which he afterwards printed from the words "I also will show my opinion."

He published an octavo volume of sermons in 1752, and several single ones on particular occasions; all of which were well received and are still highly esteemed.

In the year 1749 he received a stroke of the palsy, from which he never recovered so far as to be able to articulate distinctly. He nevertheless continued to compose and print sermons. His delight was so much in preaching, that he begged as a favor that he might be permitted to deliver a sermon once in every month in his late church. This was conceded, and his friends gave him a patient hearing, though the palsy had so far affected his tongue that they understood but little of what he said. He was seventy-two years old when independence was declared. His age and infirmities put it out of his power to render his country any active service; but his heart and his prayers were with the friends in America in every period of the revolution. When Charlestown surrendered he became

* The Rev. Mr. Quincy, a native of Boston, and an assistant minister of St. Philips, Charlestown, published a volume of sermons about the year 1750.

a prisoner of war, and was paroled as such. He discovered no disposition to become a British subject, but honorably observed his parole. In the year 1781, in the 77th year of his age, he, with the family of his son Josiah Smith, then a prisoner in St. Augustine, were all ordered away from Charlestown and landed in Philadelphia. Shortly after, he died there. In the worst of times Mr. Smith repeatedly expressed a cheerful hope that he would live to see the troubles of America ended. This was so far realized that he survived for a short time the surrender of Lord Cornwallis.

His venerable age, distinguished eminence in the church as a man of learning and piety, his steady patriotism and personal sufferings in the cause of liberty, excited a general sympathy in his behalf. Though he died a stranger in a strange land, he was particularly honored. The Presbyterians of Philadelphia directed that his body should be buried within the walls of their Arch Street church, and between the remains of his two friends the Rev. Gilbert Tennent, and Dr. Samuel Finley, late President of Princeton college.

THE REV. WM. TENNENT, A M.,

Was born in New Jersey, in the year 1740, and educated at the college of Princeton, while the Rev. Aaron Burr was its President. His ancestors were distinguished for their learning and piety, and ranked high among the earliest promoters of religion in the middle States. After he had preached some time in Connecticut he was invited to the pastoral charge of the Independent Church in Charlestown, and arrived there in 1772. As a man of learning, eloquence, and piety, he was in high estimation. While gliding on through life, devoted to study and the discharge of his clerical duties, the American revolution commenced. He was possessed of too much vigor of mind to be indifferent to this great event. It so thoroughly absorbed all his capacities as to give a new direction to his pursuits. He speedily comprehended in prospect the important changes it was likely to produce, and engaged in the support of it with all his energies. Ardent zeal and distinguished talents made him so popular, that, contrary to the habits and customs of the people, they with general consent elected him a member of the Provincial Congress. In the revolutionary crisis, when the dearest interests of the country were at stake, many things were done which ought not to be drawn into precedent in seasons of ordinary tranquility. Such was the urgency of public affairs that committees and congresses of the people, then their only legislators, were on pressing emergencies in the habit of meeting on Sundays for the dispatch of public business. In the different hours of the same day Mr. Tennent was occasionally heard both in his church and the State-house, addressing different audiences with equal animation on their spiritual and temporal interests. He rarely introduced politics in the pulpit; but from the strain of his preaching and praying it was evident that his whole soul was in the revolution; and that he considered success in it as intimately connected with the cause of religion, liberty, and human happiness. He wrote sundry anonymous pieces in the newspapers, stirring up the people to a proper sense of their duty and interest, while their liberties were endangered; but printed nothing with his name, except two sermons and a speech delivered in the Legislature of South Carolina on the justice and policy of putting all religious denominations on an equal footing. In the year 1775 the adherents to royal government in the back country armed themselves and went so far in their opposition to the friends of the revolution, that serious consequences were apprehended. In this crisis the council of safety sent William Tennent in conjunction with William Henry Drayton to explain to these misled people the nature of the dispute, and to bring them over to a cooperation with the other inhabitants. They had public meetings with them in different places. At these the commissioners of the council of safety made several animated addresses to the disaffected. In this public manner, and in private interviews with their leaders, Mr. Tennent's influence and eloquence, in conjunction with his able coadjutor, were exerted to good purpose in preserving peace and making friends to the new order of things.

Born and educated in a province where there never had been any church establishment, and strongly impressed with the rights of all men to free and equal religious liberty, he could not consent to receive toleration as a legal boon from those whose natural rights were not superior to his own. He drew up an argumentative petition in favor of equal religious liberty—united the different denominations of dissenters in its support—and procured to it the signature of many thousands. When this petition was made the subject of legislative consideration, he delivered an eloquent and well-reasoned speech in its support. This was well received and carried conviction to the breasts of many that establishments of

particular sects of religion were at all times partial, oppressive, and impolitic; but particularly so in a revolutionary struggle when the exertions of all were indispensable to the support of civil liberty. To many well-informed liberal persons his arguments were unnecessary; but to others whose minds were less expanded they were very useful, and contributed to carry through with general consent a reform of the ancient system. His valuable life was terminated in the 37th year of his age at the high hills of Santee, while discharging a filial duty in bringing his aged and lately widowed mother from New Jersey to Carolina.

NICHOLAS TROTT, L. L. D.,

Came to Carolina very near the end of the seventeenth century. He was an Englishman by birth, and had been Governor of the Bahama Islands. Nothing is known of his prior history. From the early and decided lead he took in all business, it may be fairly presumed that his abilities and information were great. He is first noticed as Speaker of the House in or about the year 1700. He then took an active part against the proprietors in a dispute whether the Governor and Council, or the House of Assembly, had the right of appointing public officers. This was brought to issue in consequence of an appointment of a Receiver-General made by the Governor and Council. The Assembly, claiming the right of appointing that officer, refused to acknowledge the one appointed by the upper house, and resolved "that the person appointed by them was no receiver, and that whosoever paid money to him should be deemed an enemy to the country." Trott supported the claims of the Assembly. Three years after, or in 1703, his name appears in the list of counsellors. It is probable that the proprietors so far respected his talents as to be desirous of attaching him to their interest. He was henceforward a great favorite with them. They conferred many offices upon him, and as long as their government lasted, he was by far the most influential man in the province. In this flattering state of public affairs, he viewed the proceedings of the proprietors in a new and more favorable light. He apprehended less danger from their power, and was less anxious to curtail it, than in the first years of his career, when he made use of the shoulders of the people as a ladder to popularity. In the progress of the province several new disputes arose which have been noticed in the general history. In all these Trott took part with the proprietors, not ony against the claims of the Assembly, but against the principles which he himself had urged in the year 1700, when he was Speaker of the House. In knowledge of the law he was profound. Two of his charges to the jury on the trial of the pirates in 1718, one in manuscript, the other printed in the state trials, have been preserved. In them his extensive erudition is so amply displayed in quotations from a variety of authors, and in the Latin, Greek and Hebrew languages, that some modern judges and juries would be puzzled to understand them. Such are the changes that have taken place in less than a century, that what was then called learning would now be denomintaed pedantry. Another change is also remarkable: of the twenty-four criminals on his calendar for the sessions to be holden at Charlestown in October, 1715, two were charged with blasphemy. No such crime is now brought into court. Expressions or sentiments similar to what were then the subjects of legal investigation, are now only punished with general contempt and abhorrence.

So great was Mr. Trott's ascendency about 1718, that it could not be shaken by the combined influence of the Governor, Council, Assembly, and people, though they had justice on their side. Nothing less than a revolution could have reduced him to the common level. The enormity of the one was a concurring cause of the other.

The downfall of Mr. Trott's power, and of the proprietary system, have been already related. After that event his great abilities gave him weight, though unconnected with the ruling powers. For nearly forty years he was among the most influential men in Carolina. For the first half of that period he had ample support from the government. In the last he had none from that quarter; but his abilities carried him through without its aid. They were so great as would have raised him to distinction in all times and under every constitution. The name of the man who long bore so great sway is now only known in the records of history, the volume of laws which he compiled, and by a street in Charlestown called after him. His blood exists in the female line, and very extensively in the numerous descendants of Admiral Sir Thomas Frankland; but the name of Trott is extinct in Carolina, though it was the theatre in which the great power and influence of this illustrious man was most eminently displayed. Mr. Trott died about the year 1740.

WILLIAM WRAGG,

Was born about the year 1714. He was the son of Samuel Wragg, and the great-grandson of Dugué, of Montpelier in France, whose daughter, Mary Dubose, was his mother. His ancestors were among the first settlers of Carolina, and, in the maternal line, among the French Protestants who found an asylum in the new world from the persecutions inflicted by Louis the Fourteenth of France on his subjects for their religion.

Mr. Wragg, when very young, and with his father on board a vessel bound from Charlestown to England, was taken by Blackbeard, the pirate, immediately after passing the bar, but was soon released. His education commenced at Westminster school, and was completed at one of the English universities. He was called to the bar in England, and married there.

Mr. Wragg's paternal ancestors were from England. Samuel Wragg, his father, purchased in the year 1717 Ashley barony from Maurice Ashley. This has descended to his grand-daughter, the wife of William Loughton Smith.

In the period of Mr. Wragg's life, which was previous to the American Revolution, he had the applause of his countrymen as a man of integrity, of liberal education, and of distinguished talents. He was for a considerable time elected a member of the Commons House of Assembly. In that character he took a decided line of opposition to Governor Lyttleton respecting his agency with the Cherokees in the year 1759. The history of the war, which then took place between South Carolina and these unfortunate Indians, has been given in its proper place. The present generation, at the distance of nearly half a century, on an impartial retrospect of the subject, must decide against the Governor, as having provoked hostilities when they might have been honorably avoided. In conducting the opposition to the Governor, Mr. Wragg displayed the talents of an accomplished orator.* His eloquence and pathetic addresses are distinctly remembered by some of his cotemporaries, who still survive.

Mr. Wragg's abilities were not only admired in his native province, but commanded the attention of the mother country. In the year 1753 he was advanced to the rank of one of his majesty's council; and about sixteen years after, without any solicitation on his part, the office of Chief-Justice of the province was offered and even pressed upon him by the Secretary of State, by the express order of George the Third. Mr. Wragg's reasons for declining this honorable and lucrative office are a proof of his disinterestedness and delicacy. He had openly and for reasons publicly given, refused to sign the association entered into by the people of South Carolina, in 1769, to suspend the importation or purchase of British manufactures, till certain impositions of the British Parliament on the colonies were done away. After he had adopted this decisive line of conduct, the commission of Chief-Justice was sent out to him without his knowledge. He returned it, giving for reason that no man should say that "the hope of preferment had influenced his preceding conduct."

The events of his life subsequent to the commencement of the American Revolution, furnish a melancholy proof how quick the transition may be from popularity to the reverse, and that without any moral guilt. When the Carolinians, breaking through all the ties which had bound them to Great Britain, resolved to emancipate themselves from colonial dependence, they would have rejoiced to have had William Wragg for their coadjutor. They respected and loved him for his many virtues, and depended on him as a countryman. They knew his rank, his influence, talents and eloquence. Their expectations of his co-operation were not realized. Being under the peculiar obligations of an oath of fidelity of the King, as one of his council, and believing, as he said, that the popular measures adopted were hostile to the interests of the country, he refused to sign the association and to take the oaths which were imposed by the favorers of the new order of things. Of his sincerity, the upright tenor of his life, and the ties of birth, family and fortune, which all attached him to Carolina, preclude every ground of suspicion.†

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* Some idea may be formed of Mr. Wragg's mode of public speaking, and of its effect, by the following paragraph, extracted from a piece written by the late General Gadsden, one of Mr. Wragg's political adversaries in 1769. "Mr. Wragg hath here most certainly waded out of his depth, and justifies a common observation, that a man had better speak a hundred ridiculous things than write one: to gild those of the first kind, an insinuating address, accompanied with an engaging, well-directed, glancing smile, and above all, an easy flow of sweetly-sounding words, delivered in a *Trim*-like stand, from a conspicuous well-chosen situation, have often done wonders: we have seen these so fascinate and confound the hearers and spectators, as to cause the greatest absurdities to pass over unnoticed."

† In Mr. Wragg's publications in 1769, signed *William Wragg, Planter*, wherein he assigns his reasons for not concurring in the non-importation resolutions of the day, he evinced his sincere and decided opposition to everything which had the appearance of forcing men's wills into measures

When called upon, he gave reasons for his refusal. These, though they would have justified him in a court of law, were not satisfactory to the friends of the revolution. From the different views they respectively took of the same subject, one party was justified for refusing what the other was justified in demanding. Mr. Wragg claimed the rights and privileges of a British subject, and these were evidently in his favor.* The popular leaders having resolved to break their connection with Great Britain, proceeded on the idea that all prior rights, laws and constitutions, merely of British origin, must yield to the necessity of the case; that self-preservation was the first law of nature, and that he who was not for them must be against them. Conceiving that the crisis was too urgent for the admission of any neutrality, they determined that all who would not co-operate with them in their revolutionary projects must quit the country. They had the power to enforce their determinations, and believed that their country's good required that they should be enforced. William Wragg was therefore obliged to leave his native land because he would not renounce the allegiance under which he was born, by which he had been protected, and under which he was happy. He took no guilt to himself, as being conscious that he had committed no offense against his God, his King, or his country: further than not seeing as the majority of his countrymen saw, and not believing as they believed, he conscientiously refused to take part with them in measures which he disapproved. The Carolinians, on the other hand, were so far from feeling remorse, that they considered themselves entitled to the praise of generosity for permitting those who choose to side with Great Britain to go thither, carrying all their property with them. Such is the consequence of revolutions, that one party often thinks it their duty to inflict what the other thinks it their duty to suffer; and both have the applause of their own consciences.

In this case the issue was melancholy. William Wragg left his country and family with the sensibilities of a fond husband and affectionate father, and at the same time with the feelings of a persecuted man, and was shipwrecked in a violent storm in September, 1777, on the coast of Holland, on his way to England. His infant son, though in the same ship, was saved.† A monument erected to his memory in Westminster Abbey exhibits the melancholy scene of his last moments.

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not sanctioned by law. "God forbid," he exclaims, "that I, descended from ancestors who severely suffered by the persecutions of Louis the Fourteenth for exercising a liberty of conscience, should ever adopt that rancour and spirit in the civil affairs of life, which they, upon religious considerations, esteeming to be the worst of tyranny, flew from to this country. Where is the reason, the justice, the charity, in locking up my property with endeavors to force a compliance or starve me? had I no other resources than what a plantation afforded, I would endure everything rather than have the freedom of my will or understanding limited or directed by the humors or capricious proscriptions of men not having authority. I have ever been studious to preserve the peace of society; voluntarily I will never violate it; I never concerned myself with the resolutions further than to declare, agreeably to my present opinion, that they did not appear to me to be such as were calculated to produce, but would be destructive of the end proposed; let me add that I have not forgotten, and therefore am not ashamed of acknowledging, that I dare not oppose acts of parliament made not for the purpose of raising a revenue, but to regulate the commerce of Great Britain and her dominions, and falling within those very rules laid down by Lord Chatham and others, who allow only of the partial supremacy of parliament over the colonies."

*It appears from the publications of those days that the associators never dreamed of independence. General Gadsden, one of the most zealous of them, furnishes a strong proof of this: In 1769 he observes, in one of his publications in favor of the association, as follows: "To say that America is aiming at independence is so far from being true that the sons of British America would think that to be independent of Great Britain would be the greatest misfortune that could befall them, excepting that of losing their rights and liberties."

†Those who knew Mr. Wragg were surprised that he should perish, when most of the other persons on board were saved. He was with the other passengers in the vessel's round-house after she had struck. Perceiving that the crew wanted assistance, he left this situation and advanced to the middle of the deck, when a wave passing over the vessel, threw him down. He held by a rope, but could never regain the use of his feet. He continued in this situation till he was so bruised and exhausted that he expired within a few yards of the round-house. The vessel afterwards went to pieces, and fortunately a part of the deck attached to the round-house floated ashore with it, which preserved most of the other passengers. Mr. David Rhind was lost at the same time.

APPENDIX.

No. 1.—*A Statistical Account of Edisto Island. From the Communications of the Rev. Donald McLeod and Dr. Auld—the Medical part from the latter.*

SITUATION—EXTENT—SOIL.

Edisto Island is situate about forty miles to the southwest of Charlestown. It is bounded by the Atlantic ocean on the southeast, by the Edisto rivers in their respective bearings on the north and south, and on the northwest by Dahaw river, which connects the waters of south Edisto or Pon Pon river with those of the north inlet. The alluvions of these rivers may have had the same agency in the formation of this island that those of the Nile and Mississippi have had in the formation of the Delta and New Orleans. Indented by a variety of creeks, it is extremely irregular in its dimensions. It is so nearly intersected in two places that at the periods of high spring tides the waters of north and south Edisto rivers intermix and form it into three separate islands. It is twelve miles long, and in the widest part, between four and five miles broad. It contains 28,811 acres, or 122 acres for every white person, and nearly eleven for every slave, and a fraction more than ten acres for every inhabitant. It is so generally level as to exhibit few inequalities of surface. The more elevated parts consist of a light, sandy soil. The low grounds or bottoms are of a stiff, clayey quality. It contains a less proportion of barren land, and is more generally fertile than any of the adjacent islands. About three-fourths of it are cleared. Firewood and fencing-timber are on some plantations scarce, and with difficulty procured.

TIME OF SETTLEMENT—PRODUCTIONS—RICE—INDIGO—COTTON.

This Island was settled about the beginning of the last century, and principally by emigrants from Scotland and Wales. All the grants are dated either the last years of the 17th or first years of the 18th century. The first settlers directed their industry to the culture of rice. The quantity of rice-land is inconsiderable, and of inferior quality. In favorable years 300 barrels have been sent to market. These rice grounds have been latterly converted into corn, and in some instances into cotton lands, to the great emolument of the proprietors.

The Edisto lands being ill adapted to the growth of rice, the islanders turned their attention at an early period to the culture of the indigo plant. In the preparation of the dye extracted from this weed, they made considerable proficiency. The Edisto indigo was in greater demand, and sold at a higher rate than any other manufactured in the State In favorable years 330 casks of 160 lbs. have been sent to market. It is observable that the lands that were found best adapted to the production of indigo are the least adapted to the growth of cotton. This, if not invariably, holds generally true. The demand for the Carolina indigo having greatly decreased, the prices became so reduced as to render it no longer expedient to plant it as an object of agricultural pursuit. In this dilemma the islanders in the year 1796 had recourse, with seeming reluctance and great doubts of the result, to the cotton plant. The success which has attended their efforts has been great. An active field hand can cultivate from four acres to four and an half of cotton land, exclusive of one acre and an half of corn and ground provisions. In a favorable year a planter on an extended scale has made 270 weight to the acre. But in a period of eleven years, his crops have averaged only 137 pounds to the acre. There are lots of land, owing either to peculiar local advantages, favorable seasons, or superior management, which have produced the enormous amount of 435 pounds to the acre. But in no instance have any of the planters made more than $490 to the hand. The general result of crops is from $170 to $260 to the hand.

The green seed cotton is a distinct variety of the same genus of plants. Its flower, leaf, and stalk are evidently different. The pod contains more sections or

divisions and a greater number of seeds. The wool is shorter, and adheres more tenaciously to the seed. It is supposed that it possesses peculiar advantages that recommend it to the attention of the planter. It requires a shorter summer to bring it to maturity, is not so liable to be damaged by the inclemency of the seasons, and is more prolific. It is better adapted to weak and exhausted lands, and the wool improves from the combined influence of a milder climate and sea air. But the experiments that have hitherto been made on Edisto Island do not warrant the conclusion that it will ever be introduced into general cultivation to the exclusion of the black seed cotton plant. In favorable years, more than 750,000 pounds of nett cotton wool are grown. This at its common price, two shillings sterling per pound, yields an annual income of $321,300; a sum which is equal to $11 for every acre on the island, and would afford $110 to every inhabitant, or $1,360 for every white person, or $8,683 for each married pair of its white population.

PRICE OF LAND—OF LABORERS—OF PROVISIONS.

The price of land varies from $30 to $60 the acre. The quantity of arable land bears rather a restricted proportion to the number of cultivators, and hence, scarcely any portion of it can be procured on lease. The few portions that are disposed of in this manner command a steady rent of $6.44 the acre.

As every planter employs his own cultivators, it is not easy to ascertain the price of labor. Active young fellows have been hired out for from $110 to $128 for the year, and prime young wenches from $64 to $85. Carpenters can earn $1.50 the day, exclusive of their maintenance.

The proximity of Charlestown to this Island sensibly affects and regulates the price of provisions. It has often happened that many articles have been purchased at a cheaper rate in the city market than they could be bought for on the Island Corn for several years has never been less than a dollar the bushel. It has sold as high as six shillings, and even as high as two dollars the bushel. Steers of three years old as they run in the pasture, sell current at $18. Calves at $8; lambs at $3; turkeys at $2 the pair; ducks at $1 the pair, and common fowls at half a dollar the pair.

FISH.

The creeks, rivers, and seas, which indent and surround the Island, furnish at different and appropriate seasons of the year, a great variety of excellent fish—as the larger drum, the small black drum, bass, rock-fish, sheep-head, cavallie, bonnetta, salmon-trout, yellow-fin trout, whiting and mullet in great profusion, black-fish, yellow-tail, ale-wife, croaker, plaice, flounder, skate, pike, shad, and cat-fish, and many others suitable for the table. Porpoises and sharks frequent the creeks and surrounding waters. Some of the latter are seen and caught of an enormous size. They are considered as just objects of terror by the negroes. And yet, although the fishermen continue hours together waist deep in water, and have often the misfortune of hooking them, they escape with impunity. Of shell-fish, the turtle is sometimes to be met with, but not in any considerable number or variety. Terrapin, land, stone, and sea crabs, muscles, clams, conchs, shrimps, are common and abundant; and the oysters of the creeks that intersect the sea-bays, below described, are equal in flavor, perhaps, to any found on the American shores.

POPULATION—WHITE INHABITANTS—SLAVES—THEIR NUMBER—VALUE—INCREASE, AND TREATMENT.

A census of the Island, taken at this time, 1808, would rate the white population at 236 inhabitants. Of these 111 are males, and 135 females. Of the males 37 are married, 4 are widowers, 9 natives of Europe, and 2 of the middle States; of the females 37 are married, 12 are widows, and all are either natives of the Island or the adjacent parts of the State. The births are to the deaths annually as 13 to 11. Nevertheless, the white population decreases in consequence of the numbers who leave the island.

In more temperate climates, it is observed that the males are to the females in their nativities as 13 to 12. The law which governs this ratio does not obtain here. Of the issue now living of 38 families, the females are to the males as 72 to 47, or 2 to 1 nearly. If the physical influence of climate can be supposed to have any agency in producing this disparity and preponderance in favor of the more amiable sex, it should increase with the decrease of the latitude, and come to a maximum in the tropical regions. If the narratives of the Abyssinian and other travelers can be relied on, something of the kind takes place. In these narratives it is asserted that in some parts of Asia and Africa, the females are to the males in a higher proportion than two to one.

From the return made to the tax-collector of the district for the year 1807, it

appears that the black population of the Island exceeds by a few infants and newly bought Africans, 2,609 slaves. If sold in gangs or families, these slaves average one with another, $430. An active young fellow sold detached from his family, readily commands from $700 to $800; and young wenches in proportion. There is a disposition in the islanders to treat this patient and laborious race with indulgence, and to meliorate their condition. They are never strictly restrained or stinted in their allowance. The instruction commonly given to those who distribute out their weekly portions is, "let them never want, but do not suffer them to waste." Exclusive of hats, shoes, salt, tobacco, pipes, and other occasional considerations, every grown negro is annually furnished with two suits of clothes, or 12 yards, partly plains and partly osnaburgs, or some adequate substitute, for their summer and winter wear. The boatmen are generally provided with surtouts of the fear-nought description, and greater attention than formerly begins of late to be paid to their accommodation and comfort, in a more enlarged and improved construction of their dwellings. Some of the planters have it in contemplation to furnish them with regular rations of beef or some other animal food, particularly during those stages of the year in which they are most exposed to greater and more constant exertions of labor. If this laudable design were carried into general execution, it would render them more able and willing to encounter the fatigues of the field, at those periods when laboring under the relaxing and exhausting influence of an almost vertical sun. Exclusive of considerations of humanity, it would be a pledge and assurance that their daily tasks would be not only completed, but more effectually done and in a style of better execution. A circumstance that would amply compensate even in point of interest, any expenses consequent on such an indulgence. Their vacant hours they are at liberty to spend as their discretion or caprice may dictate; and the fruits of their private industry they are permitted to dispose of without the least interference or control. In cases of difficulty or danger, recourse is always had to the aid of a physician. In ordinary cases the planters prescribe with competent skill and success; for so extensively conversant are they with sickness, that they may all be considered as good practical quacks. That the negroes are in general treated with becoming indulgence and humanity, no better evidence can be adduced than their rapid increase by natural population. In a period of nineteen years, 47 slaves have increased to 90. That is, the original stock, after supplying the vacancies produced by deaths, has acquired an accession to their number of 43, or nearly doubled themselves in the above specified period. It is believed that similar and more favorable instances are not uncommon on the Island. They derive some advantages from their insular position, which they could not have obtained in the interior parts of the State. Their proximity to and frequent intercourse by water with Charlestown, afford them an opportunity of carrying to market their poultry, corn, ground provisions, and whatever else they may have to dispose of. And being settled either on or in the vicinity of creeks and rivers, they can supply themselves with fish and oysters in quantities proportionate to their exertions. These advantages operate as a stimulus to their industry, and tend to multiply their comforts. If the observation that the fishing villages of Britain and the eastern parts of New England abound in children be well founded, a fish diet may be supposed to influence the principle of fecundity, and may help to account for their rapid increase by natural population. The island negroes appear to be more intelligent and speak better than their brethren of the main. Their frequent intercourse with the city and the easier access they have to the white population may have created this difference. They furnish many examples of ingenuity, private industry, fidelity and honesty. They are very susceptible of religious impressions, and repair to the churches in their best attire, and conduct themselves in a grave and orderly manner. The more aged inhabitants observe that although they are treated with more lenity and indulgence, and in every respect fare better than they did forty years ago, yet they do not appear to be happier in proportion. If dancing, frolic, and dissipation be a sure indication of happiness, the observation is well founded. At the period alluded to in their voyages to the city, they were wont to beguile the time and the toil of rowing with songs and extravagant vociferations, and were accustomed to devote their holidays to dancing, dissipation, and irregularities, often to the prejudice of their health and destruction of their lives. These practices they have in a great measure abandoned, not from a sense of additional misery, but from an impression they have acquired that they are incompatible with a religious frame of mind.

An impartial reviewer of these cultivators, and their condition on this island, would pronounce them in a state approaching nearer to competency and comfort than falls to the lot of the bulk of laborers in the greatest part of the world.

CLIMATE—DISEASES—CAUSES AND CURE—SEA-SHORE, ETC.

The climate of Edisto may be considered as sickly. In the course of fifteen years, a number greater than three-fourths of the inhabitants have died. Some families in that period are extinct, and in all of them death has been once or twice, and in some three or four times an unwelcome visitor. Two funerals have occurred in a day, but the instances are rare. And two instances can be adduced of two funerals in a family in one day. From the commencement of the sickly season of 1798, to the corresponding period of the succeeding year, 37 persons died. A great mortality for the population, and greater in proportion than that produced by the malignant fever which recently infested the cities of Philadelphia and New York. The deaths on Edisto Island, on an average of 16 years prior to the year 1808, were annually 11, or nearly one death for every 22 of the white inhabitants. It is some relief to this representation to reflect that the experience of the last few years supports the opinion that a summer residence on the sea bays, connected with a moderate attention to regularity and exposure, secures the inhabitants from the autumnal fevers incident to the climate. These sea bays are accumulations of sand, shells, and other marine recrements thrown up by the action of the Atlantic waters. They extend in an irregular line from north to south Edisto rivers, and front the ocean. They are intersected at intervals by shallow creeks, and afford a scanty nourishment to the palmetto, pines, cedars, scrubby oaks, and some dwarfish and diminutive plants. They seem to constitute a barrier between the sea and the island. It has been observed that some time before and since the last hurricane, the tides have made considerable advances on these shores. Should they continue their approaches and process of attrition, these accumulations of sand will at no very distant period be effectually washed away.*

Bilious fevers and dysenteries are the diseases which chiefly prevail in the summer and autumnal seasons. In the winter and spring, those of more local inflammation, such as pneumonic, hepatic and rheumatic affections. The autumnal diseases run more or less high in proportion as the rains set in more or less early. The symptoms which mark the bilious fevers of this island are headache, precordial oppression, sickness of stomach, and vomiting. The mildness or obstinacy of the winter diseases, may always be predicted by the force which characterized those of the preceding autumn. It has not unfrequently happened in the season next after severe autumnal fevers, that pleurisies have refused to yield to other than mercurial medicines. The mortality of this island has hitherto been great, but it is hoped that it will be less so in future. A residence on the sea bays has lately been found to lessen the frequency and violence of the most destructive fevers. When they attack they are oftener subdued by medicines early and judiciously applied. Their nature is now better understood. The success which of late years has attended the physicians in cases of early application, has in a great measure disarmed the bilious fevers of summer and autumn of a considerable portion of their terrors. In the year 1798 the deaths from fever amounted to twenty-four, very nearly an eighth of the whole number of inhabitants. Of those who died, seventeen were children under five years of age, and seven were adults. The year 1803 was equally sickly, yet the deaths from fever amounted to no more than seven: of these, three were children. The remedies which have been found to be most successful in the cure of these formidable autumnal fevers are early, large and repeated bleedings, assisted by active mercurial purges, and emetic and nauseating medicines when the irritability of the stomach did not for-

* That the Atlantic waters have encroached upon the whole line of this coast, is a fact notorious and confessed. On the more prominent parts of it which are most exposed to their action as in the vicinity of Cape Hatteras, they have made considerable invasions and threaten to extend and maintain their conquests. The more aged islanders refer to the site of a tree now covered at half flood under whose shade they have often reposed and refreshed themselves in their fishing excursions and macarooning parties of pleasure. In the course of these few last years, the summer houses have in some instances been removed from the approaches of the surf to places of greater security, and palmettoes and live oaks have been washed down, which, if an opinion can be formed from their slow growth, size and other appearances, must have flourished and stood the war of elements for more than a century. The approaches of the tides are supposed to receive a satisfactory solution in the agency of the prevailing easterly winds, which, acting on the gulf stream at right angles to the direction of its course, protrude before them its waters and accumulate them on these shores. To counteract the attritions which are slowly but effectually wearing away the sea bays, there are accretions daily making to the north and northwestern parts of the island. These accretions consist in the first instance of roots, trunks, and branches of trees and other floating substances brought down by Pon Pon, and its tributary streams from the back and upland country. These floating substances being repelled into still water, become stationary, and settling according to the laws of gravity are permanently fixed. The vast quantities of vegetable, mould, and earthly particles which the river water holds in a state of mixture, operate as a cement to consolidate these heterogeneous masses of various substances and ultimately form them into rice and corn lands consisting on the surface of a fine black sediment or mould of inexhaustible fertility.

bid. Blisters have been found to do harm if applied before the third day, but after that period astonishing effects are produced by them, when they have been applied during the remission of fever, and at such time as that their stimulating effects will be greatest about the commencement of the succeeding paroxysm. In this manner the febrile series is completely broken, and the patient recovers without the application of any other means. Doctor Rush's "blistering point," should never be out of sight when blisters are applied in autumnal fevers. Cool air and cold water are also very useful remedies. Exposure to the former, and the exhibition of the latter are strongly recommended when the feelings of the patient are not in opposition to them. The water is given as drink by way of clyster, and applied to the surface either by ablusion or affusion. Vegetable acids, and sugar have been generally found to be hurtful. In their decomposition in the stomach, they evolve much gaseous and acid matter, which not only debilitate this viscus, but by the painful distentions and eructations which they excite, exhaust the patient without producing a corresponding effect upon his disease.

The Peruvian bark is still considered by some as a remedy of powerful efficacy in the cure of autumnal fever. In mild forms of this disease it may generally succeed; and in such forms some years back it most frequently appeared. But from some cause or other, the nature of these fevers has undergone a great change. Much to be pitied is the patient now whose bilious fever is attempted to be cured by Peruvian bark! This disease in its present form is no trifler. When it makes its visit, it does it with a front and power so commanding as to disdain to be expelled by so feeble an opponent. Instead of expulsion by the bark, the fever derives additional strength from it, and a fatal termination has in this way been but too often the melancholy consequence. The effects of bark in remitting fevers even when it has been given in cases of convalescence, and when the patient has been previously well depleted, are so very questionable that it may even in these cases be generally laid aside. When the fever has been subdued by the method already pointed out, it has been found safest to trust the final recovery to regimen.

The year 1802 will long be remembered on this island for the ravages produced by the dysentery. Some of the most respectable characters became the victims of this dreadful distemper as well as a great number of negroes. Since the year 1803 but few cases of dysentery have occurred, and these were wholly confined to the blacks, and were all cured. But it was necessary to bleed once, and in some cases twice, very largely. After bleeding, calomel was given at night and castor oil in the morning; after which the cure was trusted to a saturated solution of soda in the acetous acid. Castor oil was frequently repeated through the progress of the cure, and in some instances it was found necessary to purge with salts. To relieve pain when it was excruciating, opiates were sometimes given, but the constipation they produced was more injurious than their anodyne effects were beneficial.

The occasional exhibition of small doses of calomel, and the above saturated solution, were of the greatest benefit. On this last medicine a principal reliance was placed, and it seldom disappointed the most sanguine expectations.

If it is enquired why Edisto is so sickly as it is represented to be, it may be replied that heat and moisture combined in access are agents of dissolution; that the dissolution of vegetable and animal substances generates putrescent effluvia, and that these effluvia, acting upon the system, induce diseases which often destroy life.

It has been stated that Edisto Island is a formation of the alluvions brought down from the back or upland country, by the rivers which form and surround it. These rivers are incessantly conveying to the ocean immense quantities of fresh water, which being specifically lighter than sea water, floats upon the surface. But meeting, in the course of its progress to the bars of the two great inlets, with the re-action of the tides, and the prevailing winds of an easterly bearing, it is repelled, covers the marshes, and fills the ponds. At the retrocession of the tides, a quantity of this brackish water is left behind. This becoming stationary, generates noxious miasmata, which filling the atmosphere with their deleterious vapors, prove injurious to health and destructive of life.

The peculiar local position of Edisto exposes its inabitants to a moist and morbid atmosphere. It is surrounded with vast bodies of salt, brackish and fresh water, which are in a constant state of copious evaporation. It is so uniformly flat that few portions of its surface are elevated so high as seven feet above a high spring tide. This low level surface being extensively surroundedwith and deeply immersed in water, is favorable to the production of vapors and exhalations, and tends to constitute that peculiar modification of a moist and morbid atmosphere which obtains in warm climates.

Hence the origin of these autumnal fevers, so incident to this and the lower parts of the State. This representation is supported by facts and experience.

It holds invariably true, that dry summers and falls are healthy; and those of a different description, abounding in rains and freshets, are the sure precursors of general sickness.

The marshes that border various parts of the island are of considerable extent; but being regularly covered and agitated by the tides, are kept in a state of comparative purity. There are marshes of a different description and more limited extent, but far more injurious in their effects. Of these a body of 150 acres is situated towards the centre, and probably an equal quantity in other parts of the island. Into these marshes high spring tides occasionally penetrate. They may be considered as receptacles of stagnant rain and brackish water; of decayed vegetables and putrid animal substances. From this extensive surface of putrescent matters it may well be supposed that gases of a most deleterious quality are incessantly evolving, which sensibly affect the mass of surrounding air and render it morbid.

To those who approach these marshes at certain periods of the year, particularly a little after sunrise and before his setting, the exhalations proceeding from them are most offensive; and those who are settled in their vicinity are generally more sickly than those living in more favorable situations.

The water used on Edisto Island for domestic purposes is not so pure as the health of its inhabitants requires. If the received theory of the formation of springs be correct, they cannot exist in a surface so low and little diversified by elevated and prominent parts; and hence spring water is seldom to be met with. That made use of for culinary and other purposes, is generally of a hard or brackish quality, and is obtained by sinking wells. These wells are not always sunk and constructed with adequate care and judgment. They are often left exposed to the influence of the sun, air and rain; various extraneous substances are permitted to enter them, which affect the color, taste, and general purity of their waters. No consistent attempt has hitherto been made to procure cistern water. The success of the experiments recently made in Charlestown, engrosses attention, and may at some future day lead to a general introduction of the water-cistern system.

In these causes combined may the sickliness of Edisto be found and accounted for. Attentively considered, it will excite no surprise that the island should be sickly. The wonder is that the inhabitants enjoy such degrees of health as commonly fall to their share. This must in a great measure be referred to the influence of habit, which more or less accommodates the human frame to every situation.

All the lower grounds, and even the more obnoxious marshes, are susceptible of draining, and capable of being made subservient to the purposes of the agriculturist. But the process of draining requires time, labor and expense; and not being immediately remunerated, it is reluctantly undertaken. In his progress from rudeness to refinement, man adverts in the first instance to such labors only as are most necessary and essential to his existence. The comforts, the conveniences, and elegancies of life are slowly acquired. The construction of roads, bridges, drains, and canals are effected by an improved state of society, possessing enterprise, extended knowledge and general science. These islanders are fast approaching to this state.

EDUCATION.

The present race of inhabitants having been brought up either immediately before the commencement or during the progress of the revolutionary war, suffered considerably in their education. Sensible of the advantages of early instruction and extended knowledge, and fortune concurring with their inclinations, their offspring and descendants will be more liberally educated. Of this it is a favorable indication and flattering assurance that two teachers are employed, at a salary of $1,000 each, teaching the elementary parts of an English or classical education. Nine boys are absent at schools in different parts: one is studying at the medical schools of Philadelphia, two at Princeton, and two going to Yale or Princeton College, destined for the learned professions.

The girls are educated either under the paternal roof, or are sent promiscuously with the boys to school until a certain age, when they are sent to the city boarding schools to acquire such instruction and accomplishments as these institutions are supposed capable of conferring.

The project of an academy with extensive funds has often been a subject of conversation; but although no scheme has been digested or adopted to realize their ideas, they have liberally contributed to the support of other colleges. The Reverend President Smith, of Princeton, and the Reverend Mr. Coffin, received in the year 1803 from these islanders more than $1,200, to rebuild and support the New Jersey and Tennessee Colleges.

STORES.

The Island has, time immemorial, employed a small capital in a retail store. The parties concerned have in some instances succeeded to the acquisition of fortunes. Two stores have been recently established, and those concerned have a fair prospect of succeeding in their undertakings. The various articles of merchandize that are disposed of in the city stores are sold in quantities proportionate to the wants of the inhabitants. Sales to the amount of $50,000 might be annually made, and if judiciously conducted, secure from any risk of bad debts.

SHEEP.

Although the Island produces cotton in abundance, and might furnish wool in adequate quantities, no attempts have been made to carry on any domestic or public manufacture. The islanders are alike strangers to the application of the loom and the ordinary process of knitting. Their sheep, which are of the ordinary breed, are permitted to range at large, and they engross the care of the planter no further than he can make them subservient to the purposes of furnishing lamb for his table. The requisite attention paid to washing, penning, and regular shearing, would improve both the breed, the quality, and the quantity of their wool. The Island is favorable to their increase and multiplication. Secure from the ravages of wolves and foxes, they might be multiplied to any desirable extent; and yet scarcely eight hundred fleeces are shorn annually, and these are either suffered to waste, or sold for a trifle to the upholsterer.

PUBLIC INSTITUTIONS.

The absence of a public market is supplied by a number of neighbors, generally eight or four, connecting themselves into a society, and taking in rotation appropriate pieces of such animals as are usually slaughtered. Two hundred steers, seventy-five calves, one hundred and twenty lambs, are supposed to be annually slaughtered in these associations or markets.

The island does not afford a shoemaker or a blacksmith, and yet artizans of this description, of moderate resources and competent industry could be employed to great advantage to themselves and the community.

It does not appear that any establishment similar to that of a tavern was ever attempted on the island. Strangers and visitors are received and hospitably entertained in private families, and are sent about on horseback or in carriages, as their circumstances or exigencies may require.

To afford the means of maintaining a regular intercourse with the adjacent main, and the contiguous island of Wadmalaw, two ferries were established about fifty years since, by legislative authority. But such was the unfrequency of the intercourse, that these ferry establishments have been discontinued; and there appears no disposition in the present generation to revive them. Those that have occasion to come on or go off, usually transport themselves, or have recourse to their more opulent friends and neighbors, who may be situated in places favorably for their transportation.

The islanders carry on their intercourse with Charlestown by water. In transporting themselves and the productions of their plantations, they make use of boats made after the canoe model. These boats are built of cypress and other durable materials; they are well adapted to the purposes of inland navigation, but ill calculated for encountering heavy seas. They are of various dimensions and unequal prices; from ten hundred weight to six tons, and from one hundred to a thousand dollars. There are five or six workmen advantageously employed in constructing and repairing these boats. All the efforts of their art are directed to combine elegance of shape with lightness of draught and capacity for burden.

The institution of a public convivial club is common to this and to the contiguous islands, and various parts of the State. The Free and Easy has continued its semi-monthly meeting for a period of thirty-five years without intermission; the members in rotation provide dinner. Strangers, by a standing rule, are considered as guests. The landlord of the day or entertaining member has the privilege of inviting his friends. This institution affords the planters an opportunity of repairing to a defined and central place to transact their private and public business; to consider and digest their schemes of planting; and to hear and discuss the news and politics of the day. These public dinners have usually cost the providing members fifty dollars. Estimated at the low rate of twenty-five dollars, they cost the members six hundred dollars yearly. Had these annual sums been improved at compound interest, from the first establishment of the club to the present time, they would have amounted to 88,748 dollars, yielding an annual interest of 6,212 dollars. A sum, one-half of which would be fully adequate to defray the expense of draining the island and destroying a principal source of the

diseases of its inhabitants, or of supporting other establishments calculated to improve the condition of man indefinitely with the flow of ages.

On the 29th April, 1794, a lodge of ancient York Masons was instituted for the first time on the island. During the novelty of the institution, it consisted of about thirty, but is now confined to eighteen members. Their ordinary meetings are monthly; and they are regularly attended. They have a fund consisting of 1,480 dollars, and are governed by a master, and such officers as are peculiar to that mystic fraternity.

AMUSEMENTS.

There is nothing peculiarly characteristic in the amusements of these islanders. They are similar to those which obtain in various parts of the State. The sports of the field engross a part of their vacant hours. The range, the crowded settlements, and cleared state of the island, render it unfavorable to the pursuits of the hunter, and deer finding no copse to cover them, may be said to be no longer inhabitants. Sould any stragglers rashly venture to stroll on from the neighboring main and surrounding inlets, they are instantly hunted down. Similar causes may have operated to drive and scare away those migratory and acquatic birds which, at an early period of its settlement, were known annually to frequent the Island in great variety and numbers. The culture of rice being abandoned, and a considerable part of the lower grounds drained, they are deprived of their favorite grain, or an adequate supply of seeds and insects. Being averse to the haunts of men, they instinctively retire to those parts of the State where they can feed more privately, plentifully, and securely.

It has been said that horse-racing is the amusement of an idle and luxurious people. This epithet is not as yet descriptively applicable to these islanders. If in opulent and easy circumstances, the personal superintendence of their plantations, which they seldom wholly trust to the management of an overseer, however skillful or faithful, engages their thoughts and fills up the greater part of their time. They rarely suffer amusements of any kind to divert them from the proper pursuits of life. Various attempts have been made to form a jockey club and introduce annual races; these attempts have hitherto failed of any consistent success. Local circumstances are adverse to such exhibitions on a large scale. So great are the natural advantages of water conveyances, and so limited and circumscribed is the extent of the insular territory, that saddle and draught horses of a superior breed are not wanted. In a state of society so peculiarly situated they are unnecessary. It is not compatible with the economical habits of these industrious islanders which converts everything to use to keep fine horses at considerable trouble and expense to be paraded occasionally as objects of show and admiration. The appearance of their cavalry has often excited and called forth the sneers and gibes of their brethren of the main; but these they are ever ready to repel by extolling the superior elegance, swiftness, and accommodation of their row and sailing boats. It is not to be understood that they have no predilection for the amusements and delights of the turf. If not animated by that impassioned ardor which characterizes many of their fellow-citizens, yet in the occasional racings of their sober and hardy nags, they enjoy all the real pleasure of that species of amusement exempt from that care and agitation of spirits, that trouble and expense, and those habits of dissipation which are often its consequent evils.

Dancing, it is said, was more a favorite amusement before than since the revolution. Dancing parties are confined to the temperate seasons of the year. They are neither so frequent nor so eagerly pursued as they are reported to be in other parts of the State. The planters occasionally relax themselves at the games of coit, hand and trap balls; but the recreation which engrosses more of their time and attention than any other, is that of fishing. In the arts of the fisherman they are dexterous and successful proficients. They fabricate their own lines and nets. In these fabrications they display taste and ingenuity; and this is the only species of manufacture, if such it can be called, that is practiced among them.

Of superstition some traces are discoverable. There are individuals who will not commence a journey, nor begin any new work on Friday. This day is considered as inauspicious in cases of nativities. The moon is supposed to extend a sensible influence to the operations of nature, to the growth and the decay of vegetables and animals; and hence the processes of sowing and planting are connected with the phases of the full; and animals destined to be cured and reserved for domestic use are slaughtered on those of the new moon and flux of the tide. They believe in the reality of the spectres and apparitions. Supposed facts of the reappearance of departed friends are related and by some implicitly credited.

PRIVATE REGISTER WORTHY OF IMITATION.

From the 12th of March, 1792, to the 8th of October, 1808, Joseph James Murray has kept a record of deaths, births, marriages, and other miscellaneous events which took place on Edisto Island. Such register, if kept by at least one person in every district or neighborhood, would, in time, present to the view of the physician, the legislator, the politician, and philosopher, a valuable collection of facts of great importance to the best interests of society. From Mr. Murray's register, it appears that in the course of sixteen years there were among the white inhabitants of Edisto Island 66 marriages, 212 births, and 177 deaths, 75 of which were children under five years of age, and fifteen about the age of ten; the rest were adults, six of which were strangers, eleven deaths were accidental, and one was a case of suicide. Five of the above deaths were from consumptions; there was also a case of natural small pox of extraordinary origin. Upwards of a year before the birth of the child, which was the subject of this disease, its parents had their other children inoculated for the small pox. One of them was an infant and occupied the cradle. That one died and all the others recovered. The bed clothes were washed and deposited in a drawer; but it seems that they retained so much of the contagion, as to communicate the disease which was clearly marked, though not fatal to the infant whose case is the subject of these observations. This child had never been off the Island; on which, neither at the time of infection nor for a long time after, was there a single case of small pox. From the same register it appears that of seventy-four negro children which Mr. Murray has had born upon his plantation in the above period of sixteen years, fifty-three are alive, thirty-three of which are females. The plantations of the Rev. Mr. M'Cleod, of Messrs. Ephraim Mikell, James Clark, William Edings, Daniel Townsend, William Seabrook, William C. Meggett, Dr. Chisolm, Gabriel Seabrook, Normon M'Leod, and others, furnish similar examples of increase. There is now a sufficient number of blacks for all the purposes of cultivation; and kindness with proper attention to their food, clothing, and habitations, will increase their number.

LONGEVITY.

The Island does not furnish any remarkable instances of longevity. Seventy-six, seventy-three and sixty-eight are the respective ages of the three oldest inhabitants now living. The two former instances are of widows, who have been for some years in a state of incurable infirmity. The latter instance is of a man who has been thrice married, who retains the free use and exercise of his mental faculties, and enters with interest into the business and the amusements of the day. Being inured to habits of activity and regularity, he is an early riser, and spends more of his time in the sun than perhaps any other individual on the Island. From his appearance and general health he seems capable of living and enjoying life for many years to come. All three are natives of the Island or State.

ECCLESIASTICAL STATE.

In their ideas of church government the inhabitants of Edisto are either Presbyterians or Episcopalians. Those of the former denomination are the most numerous. The date of the first organization of their church cannot, with precision, be ascertained. Its records, if any such existed in a connected or detailed form, were lost or destroyed during the conflicts of the revolution. From such detached papers as are preserved, it appears that Henry Bower obtained in 1705 a grant of 300 acres from the then lords proprietors. This same tract of 300 acres the said Henry Bower conveyed in 1717 to certain persons therein named in trust for the benefit of a Presbyterian minister on Edisto Island.

In the preamble of a deed of gift, dated in 1732, conveying from "Joseph Russel, W. Edings, Paul Hamilton, W. Bird, James Lardant, Timothy Hendrick, and W. Whippy," certain negro slaves therein named, it is stated that, "whereas a Presbyterian congregation is collected upon the Island of Edisto." This deed of gift stipulates that the negro slaves therein named and their issue be employed on the above tract of 300 acres church lands "for the perpetual maintenance out of their yearly labor of a Presbyterian minister, who owns the Holy Scriptures for his only rule of faith and practice, and who, agreeably to the Holy Scriptures of the Old and New Testament shall own the Westminster Confession of Faith with the larger and shorter catechisms as a test of his orthodoxy, and that before the church session for the time being, before his settlement there as the rightful minister of the aforesaid church or congregation." About this period a valuable donation of land was made to the church by "Mr. Wailis." The quantity is not specified, nor can the location of the tract be now traced: all that can be collected on

this subject is that "Mr. Paul Hamilton" conveyed, in 1737, an equivalent for it of 2,500 pounds currency to certain trustees. The deed of conveyance provides that of the yearly interest thereupon accruing, such part as the majority of the said trustees shall think reasonable shall be applied to the proper use and behoof of the Presbyterian minister who is or shall from time to time be regularly called and settled as the pastor of the Presbyterian congregation assembled or to be assembled for divine worship in the Presbyterian meeting-house built on the said Island."

From a schedule of the church property, taken in 1755, it appears that some time prior to that date the following persons contributed the sums or donations subjoined to their respective names, viz: "Paul Hamilton £322 10s. and two silver tankards for sacramental purposes, James Lardant £300, Wm. Cummings £94 12s., James Clark £100, Mrs. Mary Bee £100, Mrs. Mary Russel £100 of the then currency."

The temporalities of the church were originally vested in eight trustees. The monied part of the fund having considerably increased with the lapse of time it was deemed safest and most for the interest of the church to petition for incorporation. This was obtained in 1792.

The funds of the church in 1807 consisted of $23,370 30 in bonds bearing interest; and £84 10s. annual rent, exclusive of forty acres connected with the parsonage, and reserved for the use of the incumbent.

It is worthy of observation that there is no exclusive property in the pews of this church. They were, until a recent period, open to any worshiper that might repair to the church for the purposes of devotion and instruction. Some inconvenience was supposed to result from the practice of sitting promiscuously as caprice or fancy might dictate. To remove it a small rent was attached to the pews, and this small pew-rent is the only tax which the members of this church pay to the support of religion. It redounds to their credit that when the parsonage was recently destroyed by fire they readily subscribed £700 in sums proportionate to their respective incomes for the building another. The period of the first organization of this church was between 1732 and 1737.

Of its ministers no memorials are preserved that merit a particular detail. The first was the Rev. John M'Leod, a native of North Britain. He came, it is believed, as chaplain attached to a corps of Highlanders, under General Oglethorpe, stationed in Georgia. He was succeeded by the Rev. Mr. Henderson, a native likewise of North Britain; and he by the Rev. Thomas Cooly, a native of England. The Rev. Mr. Donald M'Leod, the present incumbent, was ordained minister of the church in 1794.

The Episcopalians of Edisto were originally connected in worship and discipline with the parish church of John's Island, and had divine service performed for them on Edisto Island at occasional intervals. Being liable to various disappointments in their expectations of divine service, they were led to separate from that church. In effecting their separation they built, in 1774, by subscription, a neat and commodious chapel; and some time after created a permanent fund for the support of their ministers. The zeal and liberality displayed by them on these occasions, considering the paucity of their numbers, reflects great credit on the parties concerned. The following persons contributed in sterling money the sums subjoined to their respective names, viz: Christopher Jenkins £200, Daniel Jenkins £150, Ralph Bailey £150, Jos. Jenkins £150, John Seabrook £150, Benjamin Seabrook £125, John Jenkins £120, Isaac Jenkins £125, John Hanahan £100, Thomas B. Seabrook £100, Leighton Wilson £100, William Hanahan £100, Archibald Calder 100, William C. Meggotte, £100, Nathaniel Adams £70, Joseph Fickling £70, James Fickling £70, Paul Grimbal £50, Jeremiah Fickling £50, Samuel Fickling £50, Daniel Jenkins, Jr., Jos. B. Seabrook £50, Henry Bailey £50, Jos. Fickling £30. In 1807 the fund amounted to 15,003 dollars. The Rev. Messrs. Lewis, Bowen, Sykes, Connor, and Matthews, officiated in succession in this church. For the last ten years it has been vacant, except such occasional supplies as the Episcopal clergy of Charlestown and their itinerant brethren could afford to give.

A congregation of Baptists existed on this Island at an early period of its settlement. The members of that denomination are either extinct or removed. The site of their church, in which divine service was for the first time performed in 1774, is now in a state of forest. The glebe, consisting of about seventy acres, partly in a state of nature and partly cultivated, yields a revenue of about seventy dollars yearly. This rent is regularly transmitted to certain persons at the Euhaws of the Baptist persuasion.

The intelligent traveler, who has passed through the Eastern States, will have discovered a disposition in the enlightened citizens of that section of the Union to

sneer at the infidelity of their Southern brethren. These islanders are not liable to any such imputation. They may challenge the public to produce a similar instance of a country district of so limited a population, creating by the voluntary donations of individals permanent funds, producing 3,276 dollars annually for the support of religion.

MANNERS AND CHARACTER.

The inhabitants of Edisto may be justly represented as an industrious description of planters. In their intercourse with each other and the world they are friendly and hospitable, and disposed to act on fair and honorable terms. They have been early and long distinguished for supporting religion and its institutions. And such is the liberality of these islanders, that the Episcopalians and Presbyterians worship in the same churches in the spirit of harmony and true charity. Although some of the settlements are eight miles removed from the appointed places of worship, there is hardly an individual absent on Sunday. During the performance of divine service, they conduct themselves with becoming reverence and attention.

HUSBANDRY.

The system of husbandry that obtains on this island is the simplest that can be imagined. Every act of tillage is effected by the application of the hoe. To apply this implement of the gardener to all the operations of agriculture conducted in a large way, is to render it subservient to purposes for which it was never intended.

Although the art of ploughing can be traced to the most remote antiquity, and it more effectually contributes to relieve the immediate and pressing wants of man, and multiply the sources of national wealth than any other, yet these islanders have made no proficiency in it. This fact, detached from a knowledge of their general character, would lead strangers to suppose them in the first stages of civilization. It could hardly be believed that a race of men descended from a nation of people who understood and practiced the useful arts, could subsist themselves for more than a century by agriculture, and yet continue strangers to the use and instrumentality of the plough. The fact is notorious that the Island cannot produce a specimen of this useful engine of the agriculturist. The planters appear to have an unconquerable aversion to its use. They conceive "that the operation of ploughing would injure their light lands, and render them more subject to flow;" but they are in a mistake. The plough, properly guided and applied, can be made to operate or cut at any assignable depth, from two and a half to six or eight inches.

If the objection should apply to the more elevated and lighter lands, it cannot with any force to the flat or stiff clayey bottoms. To prepare these for corn or cotton beds is a difficult, laborious and tedious process. It is significantly said to be "a *killing work for the negroes*"—for it exposes them to long and severe exertions of muscular strength.

It is objected that the operation of ploughing injures the cotton plant in its tender state. It is confessed that the fact is in part true; but this will not support the inference deduced from it. Cold winds, frost and worms, often injure the cotton plant and stint its growth in the first stages of its vegetation. But no one is induced by these considerations to discontinue his planting enterprises. These casualities are to be expected. Every judicious planter prepares against them. He leaves a superfluous number of plants until his crop has acquired a sufficient degree of maturity to encounter and outlive such dangers. The plough has been extensively and successfully introduced into the culture of cotton in various parts of the State, these injuries notwithstanding; and what these men have done, other men may do by similar exertions of skill, care and labor.

The introduction of the plough into general use would produce manifold advantages. Suffice it to state briefly, that its agency would relieve the cultivators from the pressure and endurance of that toil which now exhausts their spirits, wastes their strength, and shortens their days, and would conduce to the general comfort and extension of their lives; that it would enable the planter to employ his capital more advantageously, for he could plant more and cultivate it better. It would enable him to send his crop to market at an earlier period, and in better condition, so as to ensure it a current sale, and a liberal price. The agency of the plough would create for the planters a great deal of leisure time, which might be advantageously employed in manuring, draining, fencing, repairing and building; in combining ornament with schemes of improvement, and rendering everything snug and comfortable around them.

The repugnance that is expressed to the use of the plough, finds an easy solu-

tion in the influence of habit. Accustomed to conduct their husbandry in a certain way, they feel a reluctance to depart from that routine of management which has been found successful. It is a work of time and difficulty to persuade the generality of men to relinquish the systems of their fathers.

All that seems requisite to overcome prejudice, is the application of a few well-trained horses—some specimens of the best plough models—an intelligent and persevering ploughman. Experiments so conducted could not fail to produce the most satisfactory results; they would force conviction and bring the art of ploughing into general use.

MANURES.

The cotton crops on Edisto yield annually about 30,000 bushels of cotton seed, or a little more than one bushel for every acre on the Island. The seed contains a considerable portion of essential oil, which, if extracted and properly prepared, might be employed to useful purposes. Without extraction it makes an excellent manure. Exclusive of a small proportion reserved for the reproduction of the cotton plant, this seed is either suffered to waste, scattered as a manure over the fields, or given in its crude or boiled state as provender to milch cows, for which it answers very well.

The creeks and marshes abound in inexhaustible stores of the most stimulating manures. The small experiments made have produced the most satisfactory results; and yet no attempts have been made on a large scale to keep the same field in a constant state of culture or rotation of crops. The process adopted to enrich their lands is by natural fallows. A field that has not been too much exhausted by long and frequent culture, acquires sufficient strength from decayed vegetables and the action of the elements, to produce a crop after an interval of one or two years rest.

GROUND AND STANDING PROVISIONS.

Under this description come first and principally the yam or sweet potatoes, which are more extensively cultivated on Edisto Island than perhaps in any other part of the State. They are a most valuable root, and deserve more of the attention of the planter as an article of provision, than is commonly paid them. An acre manured as a cow-pen or otherwise, has produced and may be made at any time to produce 300 bushels of 80 weight each, or 24,000 weight to the acre in the crude or raw state. As they lose but little in the customary process of dressing, this result may be considered as accurate; and hence we have an acre producing 24,000 pounds of solid food. Estimating five pounds as sufficient not only to support a man, but to keep him in health and fit for labor; we have 4,800 persons fed from one acre for one day, or thirteen persons during the course of the year. These roots contribute extensively to the subsistence and comforts of the cultivators. They constitute an essential article of their sustenance often for six and sometimes for nine months of the year. They are exceedingly partial to their use, and prefer them for a constancy to any other article of provision. They require little preparation, and are palatable, and invigorating. It has been said that every substance is more or less nutritious in proportion to the quantity of oleaginous and saccharine matter it contains. This is conspicuously seen in these saccharine or sweet potatoes. The moment they are introduced into general use on the plantation, the cultivators of all ages and sexes become more lively and active, and improve in general health and appearance. If fermented by artificial means, these potatoes are capable of yielding an ardent spirit. The quality of this spirit might be improved by subjecting it to a more accurate process of distillation, and storing it till age had evaporated its more ardent and fiery particles.

Irish potatoes are not planted in any quantity or extent. They are chiefly cultivated for the table. The negroes are averse to their use, and can hardly be prevailed upon to receive them as a substitute for their corn rations. There is something in the climate, soil, or manner of cultivating them, that renders them less palatable, dry and mealy, than those imported from the eastern States and British Isles.

Ground-nuts are sui generis. Superficially considered they would seem to be the roots, and not as they really are, the seeds of the plant vegetating to maturity under ground. They are planted in small patches chiefly by the negroes, for market. They thrive best in light sandy soils. They produce eighty bushels to the acre. They are palatable but oleaginous and heating. They constitute, it is said, an ingredient in the manufacture of the imported and domestic chocolate. They are commonly sold for five shillings sterling the bushel; but in 1768 the same quantity sold so low as eight pence sterling.

Standing provisions consist chiefly of that variety of the maize which is distinguished by the name of flint-corn. An acre produces from fifteen to twenty-five bushels; the quantity grown is not very considerable. In ordinary years it is barely adequate to the consumption of the Island. It rarely happens that a superfluity is made to send to market; but such is the provident disposition of some of the planters, that they often keep on hand a supply of corn sufficient for the consumption of two years. The corn blades are carefully cured and preserved as a substitute for hay; for which purpose they are admirably well adapted. The intervals between the corn hills are generally planted with cow-pease, but not often to any advantage. The season of harvesting them coincides with that of picking cotton; they are therefore suffered to waste to rescue from immediate destruction the more valuable production of the cotton fields.

The culture of the English or small grains, with the exception of small patches of oats and rye, is never attempted. The islanders are equally strangers to the culture of artificial grasses, and the method of making hay from natural meadows. They are unacquainted with the plough, the harrow, the scythe, rake, reaping-hooks, wagons, sledges and such like implements which are necessary to carry on farming. One-horse carts are in general use.

GARDENING.

Although that branch of husbandry which may be denominated horticulture affords an agreeable employment and adds considerably to the scale of domestic comforts, yet the arts of the gardener are not much understood or practiced. The Island cannot produce anything to which a farmer of the middle or eastern States would attach the idea of an orchard. The quantity of fruit-trees is neither remarkable for their number nor variety. This does not proceed from any opposition of soil or climate. The first settlers had flourishing orchards, and were esteemed good gardeners. It proceeds from a disposition in their descendants to consider every act of husbandry as of minor importance that does not afford them the means of profitable exchange.

The proximity of the Island to Charlestown affords the planters an opportunity of disposing of the various productions of their plantations. But they do not in every case make the most of their situation and advantages. The soil is favorable to the culture of turnip or green crops. These crops might be advantageously applied to feeding and fattening for market their superfluous stock; an enterprise that would prove a fruitful source of emolument to those engaged in it.

DOMESTIC ECONOMY.

In no country place are the arts of the milliner and mantuamaker more generally practiced than they are by the female part of this insular community. And such is the economy or industry of the generality of house-keepers, that soap and candles are manufactured in quantities proportionate to the consumption of their families. There is not a professed baker on the Island, but the art of baking is well understood and practiced. Loaf or wheaten bread or some adequate substitute is everywhere presented. A department in the nature of a dairy on a limited scale is connected with every family. Milk is preserved in its various forms. Butter made in this private way is of a good quality, but the cheese does not deserve the same degree of praise. The products of the dairy are consumed in the family circle, or on the Island. If any part be sent to market it is in small quantities. Of the success that attends the attempts made to raise poultry, it is no unfavorable specimen to state, that from four to five hundred fowls, about one hundred turkeys, as many ducks, and forty geese have been reared; and from seventy to eighty dozen eggs have been sent to market by individual families in the course of the year.

HINTS FOR IMPROVEMENT.

If any effectual plan could be adopted for rendering Edisto Island healthy, its inhabitants would enjoy a much greater proportion of the good things of this life than ordinarily fall to the lot of man. Much good might confidently be expected from draining its low grounds. Experience proves that in all countries where this has been properly done, an abatement of summer and autumnal fevers has invariably followed;* and on the contrary, that healthy places have become sickly

* Of this many instances might be given; but the following one may suffice: "Before the above drain was cut, the families who lived near the stagnant water were subject in the spring and end of autumn to intermitting fevers of very long continuance, from twenty-three to thirty-three, and sometimes to thirty-nine days. Whole families were to be seen in such distress at the same time that no one could assist the others. They depended on the kind ministration of their neighbors

when from neglect or otherwise they have been suffered to degenerate into receptacles of filth and putrefaction. The marshes in the interior parts should be first reclaimed and the good work never discontinued till the whole Island, as far as it is reclaimable, presented a dry or at least an improved wholesome surface. Till this was accomplished, trees of quick growth should be planted between the mansions of the planters and the adjacent low grounds.

Much might be done for the improvement of the Island water. That which descends from the heavens in form of rain, if collected and preserved in cisterns, would be infinitely better than the water that is in daily use. The latter might be cleansed of much of its impurities by being boiled—purified with charcoal,* or filtered through filtering stones, sand, or otherwise.† In one or other of these methods the inhabitants of Edisto Island might, at a moderate expense, procure for domestic purposes a sufficiency of wholesome and agreeable water.

No. II.—*A Statistical Account of St. Stephens' District, drawn up principally from the Communications of John Palmer, Esq.*

St. Stephens District, situate about fifty miles to the northwest of Charlestown, is bounded by the river Santee on the north, and on its other sides by St. Johns and St. James Santee. It was originally a part of St. James Santee, and was divided from it about the year 1740. The upper and lower part of the parish was distinguished by the names of French and English Santee. What is now St. Stephens was called English Santee. What is at present St. James, was formerly called French Santee, from the circumstance that the first settlers were French refugees who had fled from persecution after the revocation of the edict of Nantz. Among them was Philip Gendron, who left one son, John Gendron, born in Carolina, who commanded a company or the Charlestown militia. This was the only military force ordered from the capital against the Indians in the

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for the supply of their necessities. Often has the poor's fund been employed to pay women to wait upon such distressed families. Since these stagnant waters were completely drained, those diseases and the sad train of complaints connected with them, have happily been unknown; meanwhile it is supposable that the same happy effects must flow from the same causes in every part of the country, and should prove an irresistible motive to draining."—*Statistical account of Leuchars in the county of Fife in pages 586 and 587 of the 18th vol. of Sir John Sinclair's Statistical Accounts of Scotland.*

* Charcoal dust is of great utility in preserving and purifying water. It must be poundered very fine, and the powder must be kept clean and as free as possible from dust, smoke, or other impurities

About three drachms of charcoal dust will preserve four ounces of common river water, or will purify it when actually stinking; but if a little acid be added, a much smaller quantity of charcoal will do.

† Fresh water may be extracted from salt by the following simple process: A common hogshead is provided with a false bottom about three or four inches above the true one. The false bottom is perforated with a number of holes, and over them is placed a filter of flannel. The barrel is then nearly filled with the finest sand beat down very hard. A tube communicating with the space between the two bottoms is extended to a convenient height above the top of the barrel. The sea water is poured into this tube, and pressing every way according to its altitudes, it endeavors to force its way through the sand to the top of the barrel, from whence by this mode of filtration it is drawn off fresh and fit for use. Any other filter will do as well as flannel, provided it stops the sand and admits the water. The saline particles being heavier, and perhaps differently formed, meet with obstructions from the sand, and are left behind. In the same manner impure water may be cleansed from foreign admixtures, which being generally heavy, cannot readily be made to ascend.

Filtration is the process by which nature prepares water for domestic use. Where gravel and sand are in plenty, art can imitate the operations of nature for that purpose. Any contrivance for percolating water through clean sand or gravel will detach some of its impurities; but the detachment is much more effectual and complete by an ascending than a descending process. A pressure from above by an elevated head of water, forcing the lowest part of the column upwards through a proper filtering medium, cannot fail of producing pure water; for its impurities, being specifically heavier, are left behind. Many machines have been contrived on these principles and with this view. The model of an excellent one may be seen in page 177 of the first volume of the Commercial and Agricultural Magazine for 1799. It occupies very little room—is of simple construction—easily cleansed, and yields a constant stream of pure water which in every twenty-four hours amounts to 300 gallons.

The following plan may be carried into effect by every planter, which though cheap and simple, would be adequate to the supply of his own family.

A small cask, open at both ends, is placed within a larger cask, wanting a head. Clean sand and gravel is put into both, so that the level of the sand within the inner cask, room being left to pour in water, be higher than the bed of sand in the intermediate space betwixt the two casks. A cock is fixed in the outer cask above the sand, at a level, somewhat lower than the surface of the materials in the inner cask. The water poured in at the top of the inner cask, sinks through the mass of sand, and passing also through that in the outer, ascends and is discharged at the cock when wanted. As the surface of the sand in the inner cask becomes loaded with impurities—remove it, and add clean fresh sand.

Yamassee war of 1715. He was sent to the Indian land, now Prince Williams, and was in all the severe actions fought against the Indians, until a peace took place. At the time of his death, which was about the year 1754, he was the eldest Colonel of militia in the then province, and was generally called Brigadier Gendron.

OF INDIANS—THEIR ANTIQUITIES AND WARS.

Persons now living, remember that there were about thirty Indians, a remnant of the Pedee and Cape Fair tribes, that lived in the parishes of St. Stevens and St. Johns. King Johnny was their chief. There was another man among them of the same tribe, who was called Prince. Governor Lyttleton gave him a commission of Captain General and Commander-in-Chief of the two tribes, which superseded Johnny. The latter took umbrage at the promotion of the former, and attempted to kill him. There were some shots exchanged but no mischief done. The neighbors interfered and made peace; but there never was, afterwards, any cordial friendship between them. All this remnant of these ancient tribes are now extinct, except one woman of a half-breed. There are several traces of Indian mounds in the neighborhood of Pineville. Some have been opened, and fragments of bone and beads found in them.

In the Indian war of 1715, St. Johns and St. Stevens parishes were the frontiers of the province. In or near them were three forts, the first on Cooper river, about three or four miles below Monk's Corner, on the plantation of Mr. Thomas Broughton, called Mulberry. One was on Mr. Daniel Ravenel's plantation, called Wantoot. Another on a plantation of Mr. Izard's, called Schinskins, on the Santee river. The garrison at Schinskins were all massacred in consequence of their own imprudence in permitting a number of Indians to enter the fort under the cloak of peace and friendship. They concealed their tomahawks with their blankets. When they got in they butchered the whole of the garrison except one negro, who jumped over the fort. He ran to the garrison at Wantoot and gave the alarm. Col. Hyrne who was in that fort advanced with a party—surprised the same body of Indians at Schinskins fort, and killed the whole of them. They were unguarded and engaged in feasting. In this situation they were surprised and cut to pieces. Colonel Hyrne who commanded on this occasion was the grandfather of the late Major Hyrne.

A similar act of perfidy on the part of the Indians was committed about the same time a little above the Eutaws, at a place called Barker's Savannah. The commanding officer, Colonel Barker, from whose defeat the scene of action acquired its name, was drawn into an ambuscade by the treachery of an Indian named Wateree Jack, who, pretending friendship, allured the white people into a snare. In this action David Palmer was killed; and Edward Thomas,* the great grandfather of the two present Dr. Thomas's, was wounded. The cruelties and perfidies of the Indians excited resentments in the minds of the settlers which led to deeds unworthy of a civilized people.

A man of the name of Donavan lived in the upper part of St. Johns, who stood his ground all the time of this Indian war. He had a strong log house, and a number of large mastiff dogs that kept the Indians off, and occasionally killed them. Donovan kept his dogs at home in the day, and turned them out at night. When they killed an Indian, he gave them no provisions. They soon acquired a habit of feeding on the flesh of Indians when dead, and of attacking them when alive.

AGRICULTURE—FRESHETS

The inhabitants of St. Stephens began to cultivate indigo about the year 1754; and cultivated it with success, particularly in Santee river swamp, until the year 1784. In the beginning of the latter year, St. Stephens was one of the most thriving parishes in the State, and in point of size was the richest. The parish then had about five thousand negroes in it, but at present does not contain half that number. The white population has also diminished in a similar proportion. In 1776, '77, '78 the militia company mustered one hundred men under arms; but there are not now above forty, exclusive of alarm men. There are at present many waste old fields both on the high-lands along the edge of the river swamp and in the swamp, which thirty years ago were in the highest state of cultivation, and produced luxuriant crops of corn, indigo and rice. This melancholy reverse

* This gentleman after living about fifty years in St. Stephens parish, for fifteen years of which period he never passed the limits of his plantation, went to England and died there since the revolution, at the advanced age of ninety. He communicated the above particulars to Captain Palmer.

is the effect of freshets. These lands are uncommonly fertile, and were successfully cultivated till the year 1784. From that year till 1796, very little was made near the Santee. Many of the planters, discouraged by a rapid succession of freshets, abandoned the plantations subject to their baneful influence. Since the year 1796 these freshets have diminished in frequency and height; and the planters have successfully recommenced the culture of corn and rice, and engaged in that of cotton. The ground is found to answer for the latter, and extraordinary crops have been lately made.

To account for the uncommon frequency of freshets through a period of twelve years is very difficult. No record of anything similar since the year 1701 has reached us. In that year, we are informed by John Lawson, that a flood came down the river Santee, which raised it thirty-six feet. That none of equal magnitude has occurred in the eighty-three years which followed, is probable from the silence of records and tradition. Within that period the upper country had been settled and its lands cleared. From its being more generally cultivated, some inferred that the falling rain met with fewer obstructions in passing off from the high land to the nearest rivers; and that these, with their enlarged streams uniting in the Santee, precipitated over its banks a much larger body of water than it ever could have received from above while the upper country was covered with leaves, logs, trees, brush, and other impediments to the free passage of rain and melted snow. This doubtless may have had some influence, but is not equal to the effect, for in that case the progressive clearing of the upper country would have produced a correspondent and accumulating increase of water in the rivers below, and a greater frequency of freshets, which is the reverse of facts, especially since the year 1796. Others suppose that the freshets are the consequences of extreme wet or warm seasons in the upper country, which, from the increase of rain and of melted snow, pour down torrents on the subjacent plains. The alternation of a series of wet and dry years is not without precedent. The cause is not precisely known, but the melancholy effects are obvious.

RELIGION—LITERATURE—PINEVILLE.

St. Stephens has a large brick church built in 1769 and a wooden chapel There is no clergyman at present, but the teacher of the Pineville academy performs divine service every Sunday. There have been four clergymen in the parish since the peace of 1783. First, the Rev. Mr. John Hurt—the second the Rev. Mr. Farrel—the third the Rev. Mr. O'Farrel—the fourth the Rev. Mr. Connor. The first was from Virginia, and the other three from Ireland. Pineville in St. Stephens is a retreat for health in the summer and autumn. It began to be settled in 1794, and is about fifty-two miles to the northwest of Charlestown. It is situated on a level piece of pine land about five miles to the south of the Santee, and two miles from the swamp; which is three miles deep to the river. Pineville contains twenty-two dwelling houses with an academy for teaching the Latin and English languages. The master has a salary of twelve hundred dollars per annum, and a house found. The school is confined to thirty scholars, rates of schooling $50 per annum for subscribers' children, and $60 for non-subscribers; to be paid half yearly in advance. The Pineville academy is incorporated and under the superintendence of five trustees. The tutor is permitted to take boarders not to exceed sixteen, but is restrained from demanding more than $100 per annum for boarding. There are also two private schools in the same place for the tuition of the smaller class of children. The white population of Pineville is 150; the greater part of them under the age of sixteen. The number of blacks is about 300. The water is all from wells from fourteen to eighteen feet deep. It is very excellent, cold, and soft, being filtered through white gravel and sand.

There is a quarry of stone on a piece of high land about a mile from Pineville. It is a hard brown stone very heavy and has the appearance of iron ore. Colonel Senf used some of the same kind of stone, procured near this quarry, for part of the locks of the Santee Canal. Nothing like it has yet been found in the low country of Carolina.

AMUSEMENTS—HEALTH.

Dances commence in September, and there are generally from two to three in a week in the season of residence in Pineville. They are given by the inhabitants nearly in rotation, with little ceremony and expense, but with great decorum and propriety; and never continue later than eleven o'clock.

Pineville has been generally healthy. There are in it but few cases of fevers, and these are chiefly in the month of July. Seldom any regular intermittents originate there. Those who expose themselves in visiting their plantations, occa-

sionally suffer in consequence of their imprudence. There was a fever in the summer of 1803, which proved fatal to six negroes in Pineville, and eleven on the adjoining plantation; but scarcely affected white people. The symptoms of this fever were a violent head-ache and pain in the back—the pulse was low. The tongue was of a brown or deep red color, and when put out trembled much. A great weakness and dilirium generally attended. The most successful mode of treatment was to give in the first instance one or two emetics and afterwards camphor, nitre and small snake-root. When the patient was very low, wine freely given seemed to be of the greatest service. Bark was injurious. Few old negroes took the disease.

LONGEVITY AND FECUNDITY.

Two of the natives and resident inhabitants are between sixty and seventy. Of the ninety years which Edward Thomas lived, more than one-half were spent in St. Stephens. The district is not remarkable for the longevity of its inhabitants, but there have been of late a few prolific marriages. Five, six, seven and eight children have been raised in some families within the last thirty years.

MANURE—FISH—STOCK—WILD BEASTS—TREES—MANUFACTURES.

The planters begin to be careful of their manure and to be sensible of the utility of improving their lands. The best and the most durable manure is derived from herding cattle in pens. This increases the fertility of the land fourfold. Cotton seed is also much used. A pint of it put around or in a corn hole adds greatly to the crop. Santee river is well stored with fish, particularly the trout and the bream. There are also cat-fish, mud-fish, rock-fish and sturgeon. The inland creeks and ponds produce trout, perch, and bream. The stocks of cattle belonging to individuals rarely exceed 150. They decrease in cold winters, but increase in such as are mild. Few own more than fifty head of sheep. These are often destroyed by wolves. Hogs are also often killed by bears. The swamps of Santee afford favorable retreats to these and other wild beasts. There are on an average from 100 to 150 pine trees on an acre of ground. Their ages vary, but in general they live about 200 years. If we may judge by their surrounding rings, a few approach their 400th year. Domestic manufactures begin to increase. Some of the planters clothe their negroes with homespun, and also manufacture coarse cloth from inferior cotton for the envelopment of that commodity.

STORMS.

The parish of St. Stephens, in proportion to its distance from the sea, had its full share of the calamities resulting from the hurricane of 1804. From minor storms it has frequently suffered. One of the most remarkable and injurious was on the 6th of June, 1801. A cloud appeared to the northwest with thunder. Shortly after a storm came up with great violence, but without rain. The cloud had a redness like fire, and the dry dust thrown up was dreadful. The wind prostrated the fences. The growing cotton was materially injured. Its color was changed to brown. The tops were withered and blackened. In St. Matthews the storm was equally violent and blasted the corn and peas. The peach and plumb leaves had an adust black appearance. The weeds and grass were also very much injured. During the storm the wind appeared to have a heat like the blast of fire at a distance. The mercury from being up at 96 degrees at one o'clock, fell in less than five hours to 76.

EMINENT MEN.

Colonel Maham, a native of St. Stephens parish descended from Swiss ancestors who had settled there early in the 18th century, made a distinguished figure in the revolutionary war. He was possessed of considerable natural talents as a military man. At the taking of fort Watson, on Scott's lake, General Marion gave him the sole direction in carrying on the approaches and erection of a battery for over-shooting the British fort. At the taking of the fort at Motte's above Belleville, General Marion gave to him the sole direction in carrying on the approaches. Both these enterprises were crowned with complete success. Major Pinckney, who examined the works after the surrender of the fort, declared that they had been erected with as much correctness as if they had been planned by the most experienced engineer. The British thought so well of him that they made him an offer of a regiment if he would join them. Colonel Maham also behaved very gallantly in sundry skirmishes, and particularly at Watboo and Quinby bridges.

St. Stephens has given birth to John Gaillard, Senator, and Robert Marion, Representative of Charlestown District in the Congress of the United States, and

also to Theodore Gaillard late Speaker of the House of Representatives of the State, and at present one of the Judges of the Court of Equity.

SUFFERINGS FROM THE REVOLUTIONARY WAR.

St. Stephens was not the scene of any important action. John Palmer, Sen., and Joseph Palmer, the first sixty-six and the last fifty years old, were taken prisoners in May, 1781, out of the house of the former by a party of tories—carried to the British post at Biggin Church, and both confined for three days in the family vault of the Colleton's. The reason assigned by the captors was that John Palmer, Sen., had two sons performing military duty with General Marion.

No. III.—*A Statistical view of Pendleton District, chiefly from the Communications of Edward Darrel Smith, M. D.*

NAME—SITUATION—SETTLEMENT—ABORIGINES—FACE OF THE COUNTRY—RIVERS—WILD BEASTS.

Pendleton District was so named in compliment to Henry Pendleton, a native of Virginia, and one of the Judges of the Court of Common Pleas in South Carolina. It forms the southwest extremity of the State, and was obtained from the Indians by treaty in 1777, founded on their conquest in the preceding year; but the settlement of it was deferred till the termination of the revolutionary war in 1783. Its first white settlers migrated principally from the Districts of Abbeville and York, in South Carolina; and from North Carolina and Virginia. Among the most remarkable of them were General Pickens and General Anderson, now living, and Colonel Cleveland, deceased, who bore a command in the engagement at King's Mountain in October, 1780. He was remarkable for his great bulk, being said to weigh more than four hundred pounds, and for not having been able to lie down for some years previous to his death.

The country was formerly occupied by the Cherokee Indians who had a considerable town about thirty miles above the confluence of Tugeloo and Keowee rivers, now known by the name of Seneka. There are no settlements of Indians remaining on the eastern side of the mountains. The last of them removed from a small town on Cane creek about the year 1792. Two or three stragglers still live in that neighborhood, residing among the whites, and procuring game for them. Their nearest considerable settlement at this time is on the western side of the mountains, about sixty miles from Pendleton Court House. They have lately made some advances towards civilization. Many of them have separate farms which they cultivate with the plough, some of them to a considerable extent. They are also beginning to make homespun for themselves. They raise large stocks of cattle which they frequently drive to Augusta. They still however retain their fondness for spirituous liquors. Travelers amongst them meet with a hospitable reception. These Indians are well acquainted with the value of money, and when transacting business are not easily imposed upon.

The country is generally uneven and becomes gradually more hilly as it approaches to the mountains. These are said to be a part of the great Blue Ridge, or Back Bone of the United States, and are quite uncultivated. The narrow vallies which run between them are very fertile and covered with canes which afford excellent winter pasturage. The cattle which range among them attain to a considerable size, and make very fine beef without ever having tasted a grain of corn. The most level and valuable lands are situated upon the water courses and in their vicinity. The country is generally well watered by some large rivers and numerous small streams which are never known to fail. Among the larger rivers may be mentioned Seneka or Keowee, Tugeloo, Rocky river, Little river, Twelve mile. Near the mountains the streams are so limpid that stones can be seen at the depth of five or six feet below the surface. The wild animals are much the same as those in the lower country, with the addition of bears and some panthers in the vicinity of the mountains.

VEGETABLE PRODUCTIONS—STONES—CAVERNS—FALLS—SHOALS—CLAYS.

Among the useful vegetable productions may be mentioned all kinds of snake-root, and the pink-root. This latter is so abundant in the mountains and their vicinity as to form an article of exportation. From twenty to thirty pounds of it may be gathered in a day by a single person. The gentian root and ginseng are common in many parts of the District. There is a valuable plant commonly known by the name of earth-gall. This has great celebrity for its efficacy in curing persons bitten by venomous animals. The root is bruised and one or two

table spoonsful of the expressed juice is mixed with milk and poured down the patient's throat. This soon excites violent vomiting and profuse perspiration, which leaves the patient in a state of great langour, but entirely relieved from the effects of the poison. Stones have been found which answer for mills equally well with those that are imported; but there is no one who makes it a business to prepare them for use. There are some very large stones which are used by the tanners for grinding bark, and also thin flat ones of a considerable length and breadth which make a tolerable smooth hearth, and would no doubt answer well for pavements. There are large quantities of a coarse stone which stands the action of fire, and of which rough durable buildings are constructed; but none are known which partake of the nature of marble. There is a remarkable fall on Conneross creek at Kilpatrick's mill, where a large sheet of water has a perpendicular fall of about ten feet over a ledge of rocks. There is a remarkable cavern on the same creek large enough to contain several persons. It formerly served as a retreat for thieves. There is no other mineral yet known but iron, the ore of which is found in several parts of the district. A great deal of white sand is found upon the poor ridges; and large quantities of blue and yellow clay near the small streams of water; of them good bricks are made, and they would doubtless answer for pottery. The country abounds with large rocks which in some places obstruct the navigation of the water courses, and form a natural pavement for crossing them. One of the most remarkable shoals, known by the name of Portman's, is in Keowee or Seneka river. These shoals are about four miles in length, and have been lately made navigable.

AGRICULTURE — MEADOWS — COTTON — INDIGO — HEMP — TOBACCO — RICE — FLAX — WHEAT, AND OTHER SMALL GRAINS.

The cultivation of the ground is chiefly carried on by the plough, and has not undergone any material changes. Within a few years past many persons have turned their attention to the improvement of meadow lands, of which there is an abundance. They cultivate a very fine native grass known by the name of red grass, which is perennial and affords a large quantity of good hay. Cotton is the present staple for market, but the summer is frequently too short for its complete maturation. Indigo was formerly cultivated to some extent, and is still planted in small patches as a domestic dye. Tobacco, in some years, yielded very well; but from its reduced price it is now rarely cultivated for sale. Some few persons have cultivated hemp, and in suitable grounds the product was considerable; but it has been relinquished for more profitable crops. Small patches of rice have been planted for several years in different parts of the country, but no person has yet attempted to cultivate it to any extent. From late experiments it appears that the lands which can be constantly watered will, under proper management, produce as much rice as those in the lower country, and that it will be a much more certain crop than cotton. Flax, rye, wheat, oats, and barley, are also cultivated with advantage.

ROADS—BRIDGES—INLAND NAVIGATION.

The roads are not so much improved as they might be. They are generally too narrow, and also more numerous than can be kept in good repair. There are but few bridges and those not very durable, being all constructed of wood, although there are large quantities of stone in the vicinity. The public attention has been lately turned to opening the navigation of rivers. During the summer of 1808 a very important work of that kind has been accomplished. Keowee or Seneka river has been rendered navigable for more than twenty miles above its mouth. Though the expense of this undertaking was less than seven hundred dollars, yet it has answered so well that boats carrying ten thousand weight can be safely navigated down to Augusta. There are several smaller streams which might be cleared out so as greatly to facilitate the internal intercourse. The principal obstructions are large trees which have fallen into the water. Their general depth, however, would admit none but flat bottomed boats, except in cases of high freshets.

EXPENSES—PROFITS—HAZARDS OF AGRICULTURISTS—PRICE OF LAND—AND NATURE OF SOIL.

Where the soil and seasons are of the most favorable kind, twenty acres of corn can be easily and well cultivated by one good ploughman and two hoers; and the product would probably be forty bushels to the acre. The average price of corn may be estimated at half a dollar for the bushel, and thus three laborers would make from twenty acres four hundred dollars. A similar force might cultivate

fifteen acres in cotton. The product of this would give about four hundred and eighty dollars. These are the two staples of the country; but it is to be remarked that corn is less liable to be affected by unfavorable seasons than cotton, and is also more easily prepared for market. In backward springs the river grounds are infested by a black worm, resembling the common grub, which destroys all vegetation until they become dormant on the approach of summer. None of these worms are found in the high ground. If a market for rice, equal to that of Charlestown or Savannah, could be found at Augusta, it is probable that more money could be made by the cultivation of this article than either of the preceding. In many situations there are small fields with a command of water which, when put into proper order, would yield three barrels to the acre. Three workers could easily cultivate twelve acres, which would produce thirty-six barrels, and this quantity, at the usual prices, would yield between six and seven hundred dollars. Low grounds may be valued in general from twenty to forty dollars for the acre, and high grounds from fifty cents to five dollars. The soil may be divided into high and low grounds, and these again subdivided. The high grounds consist of a rich clay soil with some black mould, best adapted for corn, wheat, tobacco, &c.—a gray soil, consisting of a gray sand, and some clay and mould best suited for cotton—and a white sandy soil, which is very poor and scarcely ever cultivated. The low grounds differ according to their situation upon large or small water courses. The large streams generally have their low grounds composed of black mould with very little clay, sometimes of mould and gray sand, which answer well for cotton. The soil on the smaller streams is composed of clay with a small quantity of mould. They all produce corn very abundantly, and stand drought much longer than the richest high grounds. With proper management they are said to be inexhaustible.

TIMBER—QUANTITY OF IMPROVED LAND.

The natural growth of the low grounds is walnut, poplar, white oak, elm, ash beech, birch, elder, chesnut, &c. High ground of the first quality has nearly the same productions, with hickory, pines, and other species of oaks. The second quality bears a larger quantity of pine, with some hickory and oak, and the third scrub oak and pines, with a few post and Spanish oaks. All the kinds of oaks may be used for different purposes, excepting the scrub oak, which is good for nothing but firewood. Good shingles are made of the heart of pine, and still better of yellow poplar. Excellent furniture is made of walnut and birch. There is not a fourth of the land in the district that is cleared, and not more than one-half that is accounted fit for cultivation.

LABOR-SAVING MACHINERY—FISHERIES—AND STOCK.

In almost all parts of the district there are natural advantages for the erection of mills and other labor-saving machinery; but as yet only a few saw and grist-mills, and some cotton gins are worked by water. A fulling mill was erected some years since on the waters of Cane creek, and was in operation for a little while; but has been idle for some time past, for want of a proper person to conduct the business. Great quantities of fish are caught by means of traps, both in winter and summer. The most productive fishery is in the latter end of the spring, when shad come up the rivers to spawn. In the vicinity of the mountains stock may be raised with advantage, as there are large pastures of the wild pea vine and green canes; but in other parts of the district the range is indifferent.

CLIMATE—DISEASES—DISTILLED ARDENT SPIRITS

During the winter the weather is not so variable as on the sea-coast, nor is the degree of cold much greater, although frost occurs later in the spring and earlier in the fall. There are perhaps about three weeks difference between this climate and that of Charlestown. In the summer the days are sometimes very warm, but the nights are generally cool. The greatest quantity of rain falls during the winter, occasioning at times considerable freshets. Sleet and hail storms are not uncommon, and sometimes occur so late in the spring as to do great damage to cotton and corn. Occasionally there are a few sporadic cases of intermittent fever, attended sometimes with and sometimes without ague. When neglected, or improperly treated, they are often protracted, and materially injure the constitution. Dysentery is the most epidemic disease, and is generally most prevalent in July, August and September, although it occurs at all seasons of the year. It is seldom mortal, except to children or aged persons. Its fatal issue is frequently the result of injudicious treatment. In the winter the usual inflammatory diseases of cold climates prevail more less. Upon the whole this district may be considered as healthy as most parts of the United States. The intemperate use of spirituous

liquors produces the same baneful effects here as in other countries, although perhaps not so quickly nor to so great an extent as in more enervating climates and in subjects who are not obliged to labor for subsistence. From the inattention of distillers in the preparation of home-made spirituous liquors, a quantity of verdigris is frequently formed, which is afterwards dissolved in the liquor, and thus an additional potent poison is conveyed into the system.

EMIGRATIONS AND IMMIGRATIONS—POPULATION—MANUFACTURES.

Although there are frequent emigrations beyond the mountains, the immigrations into the district are supposed to balance the account. Population increases from the following causes. the people generally marry young, lead lives of steady industry, and live upon plain wholesome food in a healthy country. As an evidence of this there is scarcely a house to be found without several children. The black population increases every year. More slaves are born than die. The surplus of crops is generally vested in the purchase of negroes. Several of the more recent emigrants bring negroes with them. In the census of 1800 the negroes were one in eleven of the whole population, but in 1790 they were one it nine. In the first period, the white population was 8,734; in the last, 17,328: an increase of more than two for one in the course of ten years. In the same period the black population had increased so much that it only wanted 374 to be three for one. Domestic manufactures are carried to an extent which goes far in supplying the wants of individual families, but few or none are carried on for sale or to any considerable amount but those of iron. Of this metal there are several works in various parts of the district, and an abundance of ore for their supply. These manufactures are as yet chiefly confined to the making of bar-iron, plough-shares, and farming utensils. The bar-iron can be sold equally cheap with any that is imported. and is said to be as good, if not better in quality. Most of the common plantation tools are made by blacksmiths in the country. Several persons in the district make very good rifle-guns for sale, and in some places small manufactories of gunpowder are carried on. The numerous streams and convenient falls which are found everywhere, offer great advantages for conducting all manufactories wherein the impelling power of water is needed; but to improve them capital and enterprise are necessary. The first is wholly wanting, and the last very deficient.

EDUCATION—NEWSPAPER, ETC.

As yet education is but at a low ebb, and very little knowledge is diffused throughout the country. There is but one classical academy in the district, and that has been established within a few years. This academy is under the direction of an able teacher, Mr. Edwin Reese, and superintended by trustees of competent abilities. It is situated within a short distance of the court-house, in a very salubrious spot, and has a fine view of the great blue ridge. The price of boarding is sixty dollars, and of tuition twenty dollars by the year. Several English schools are found in different places, but they are not always provided with sufficient teachers. Among the attempts to diffuse knowledge may be mentioned a weekly newspaper which is very well conducted and printed at the village of Pendleton by Mr. Miller. It is a fact worthy of record, that in the frontier district thirty years ago, possessed by Indians, the publication of a newspaper has commenced and is carried on in a manner worthy of patronage The yearly subscription is two dollars and a half.

ECCLESIASTICAL STATE.

The prevailing religious denominations are Baptists, Methodists, and Presbyterians. There are several churches in different parts, but they are not all supplied with regular pastors.

FRESHET.

This district is generally free from freshets. None, but the remarkable one of January, 1796, has been known to do any mischief of consequence. This materially injured the river grounds. Almost every plantation suffered from it more or less. Great quantities of sand were taken up by the waters and deposited in such thick layers upon the surface as to prove very injurious to the soil. In some places large holes were made in the ground eight or ten feet deep.

The current prices of the following articles in Pendleton in common years, are, Indian corn, 50 cts. per bushel; wheat, 75 do. do.; oats, 50 do. do.; corn blades, 75 per cwt.; hay, 50 do. do.; beef, 4 do. per lb.; pork, 5 do. do.

No. IV.—*A Statistical Account of Orangeburg District, chiefly from the Communications of Dr. Jamieson and Dr. Shecut.*

The first settlers of Orangeburg district were Germans, who arrived in Charlestown in 1735. From the third year of their settlement they had the benefit of religious instruction from the Rev. John Gissendanner. One of his children, born in 1742, is still alive. The first child that he christened was born in 1739, and is also alive. This reverend gentleman continued to officiate among these immigrants for twenty-two years after they located themselves in Orangeburg, and his register is now extant. Three or four individuals had previously settled Cowpens in advance north-westerly of the low country white settlers. These and the Cherokee and Catawba Indians were all the inhabitants who had preceded these Germans. Of the aborigines nothing worth relating is known. The district of Orangeburg s situate on the northeast side of north Edisto river, 79 miles north-northwest Charlestown.

A considerable proportion of the district consists of pine lands. These are divided into two kinds, pine and pine barren land. Of the first there are different grades. In the vicinty of most rivers, creeks, and swamps, are found in abundance magnolia, beech, willow, ash, elm, oaks, birch, walnut, and hickory trees. In the swamps there are large groupes of cypress, loblolly bay, sweet bay, maple, and tupelo trees and poplars of an immense height and circumference. From the margin of the swamps the lands are gradually elevated, and the more distant the less valuable. The best pine lands yield with good husbandry considerable crops of corn, cotton, wheat, and the smaller grains; and the swampy parts yield rice. The pine barren lands are so called from the sandy nature of the soil. In their natural state their timber alone give them value; but by manuring they may be made to yield from eight to twelve bushels of corn to the acre. On this land the industrious Germans make a decent living; but to the idle they afford little more than high, dry, and healthy sites for habitations.

The early settlers attended first to provisions and afterwards planted indigo for market. At present cotton engrosses most attention: but some persons continue to plant indigo, although given up in other parts of the State. The average quantity of indigo made to the acre depends greatly on the season and land. Dr. Jamieson has made 56 lb. of prime indigo to the acre, and sold it in Charlestown for $1 each pound; and the land of which it was made would not sell for more than fifty cents the acre, provided it had been separate from the other part of the same tract. Common pine land will produce 40 lbs. of indigo to the acre, and is more suitable for that article than for cotton. Land, when naturally good, has produced of the latter from 500 to 1000 lbs. in the seed, per acre. Ordinary land well manured will turn out nearly as much.

Where the land can be watered rice will produce from fifty to sixty bushels per acre. This in its rough state often sells in the vicinity from $1 to $1 25 cents per bushel.

The district affords some valuable orchards, particularly of peaches. This fruit accords well with a sandy soil. Some old settled farmers have large orchards of peaches, apples, and plums, which produce fruit in good seasons sufficient for domestic use, and a considerable surplus for market. From them are made brandy, cider, and vinegar.

The planters of this district improve their lands by manuring corn-hills every spring either with cotton seed or swamp mud, thrown up in pens in the fall season to remain during the winter. This, especially when improved by mixing with it cotton seed, stable manure, or decayed vegetables, greatly increases the fertility of the soil. Wheat on well manured land has produced thirty-four bushels to the acre. Rye or oats much more.

Few planters have any idea of the great advantages that may be derived from these swamps and bogs. At no very distant day their value will be properly appreciated.

The high lands in this district have sold from fifty cents to twenty dollars per acre. Great part of it abounds with good mill seats. Several saw mills have been and many more might be erected, and all find profitable employment, provided a canal was opened between Edisto and Ashley rivers. This would double the value of land in the vicinity of the former. There are grist mills which can manufacture wheat flour of an excellant quality.

The district abounds with stock; but from their number and from the increased population there are only a few particular spots in which cattle can maintain themselves through the winter. Sheep live and thrive in the barren lands, and are

more productive than any other kind of stock in proportion to their value and the little care they require.

The population of the district has increased so rapidly that old settlers consider it to have doubled within the last twenty years. Some large families are raised, and health is generally enjoyed by those who live two or three miles distant from low moist grounds. There are several persons now living above seventy. A few approach ninety or one hundred; and three or four are known who have survived a complete century.

The blessing of health is in this district best enjoyed by those who reside on high open pine lands. Stagnant ponds, bays, river swamps, and mill seats are generally the pests and scourge of country settlements. Inhabitants in their vicinity are almost annually visited with fevers. While the whole marginal extent of rivers is groaning under these afflictions the pine land settlers are scarcely otherwise affected than with common colds and slight attacks of intermittents.

An industrious and economical man with his wife, possessed of the same qualities, may procure in a short time a comfortable living, though he possesses nothing on his arrival. He may procure a small tract of land on a credit, and in one winter he may cut down and lop off the trees and underwood of eight or ten acres of ground. His neighbors are ever ready to lend him a helping hand; and when he has all in readiness, on signifying his intention, thirty or forty able bodied men, white and black, assemble on the ground early in the day and with hand-spikes they lift into piles the huge logs, while the children drag away the brush and boughs into heaps. When the light of day retires they kindle a blaze which soon enlightens the dark space around, and reduces to cinders in a few hours what else might have been the work of months. When the land is thus prepared and previously fenced and grubbed, it is broken up with a shear plough, and the roots distributed in piles to dry and consume; after which it is again ploughed and chequered for planting. One man with a good horse will tend from ten to fifteen acres of land in corn, peas, and potatoes, and make provision enough to support his family through the ensuing year. The only difficulty occurs in the first settlement; but this is generally remedied by the hospitality for which the planters are remarkable. Honest industry always finds friendly assistance among them.

Pine lands, when judiciously managed, in a few years become equally productive, if not more so, than the generality of oak lands. They who plant oak and swamp lands depend so much on the present goodness and strength of the soil that they continue to crowd crop upon crop, impoverishing annually the natural goodness thereof without regard to its improvement, while they who are possessed of pine land, from a knowledge of its general poorness, are induced to supply by art and industry what is natural to the other. The Germans obtain crops from poor pine lands equal in quantity, according to acres and hands, with most farmers on oak lands. The average crops of Indian corn from lands of this quality are from ten to twenty-five bushels to the acre. A method hitherto commonly employed by weak handed planters is to select various eligible levels on a tract of pine land. These are converted into fields in the following manner: the large trees are girted, that is, a ring is cut through the bark to the wood; by the next spring they all die and cease to draw from the surrounding earth any of its nourishing properties. The smaller trees are then cleared away and burnt up. The ground, broken up with grubbing hoes and the plough without any other preparation, is sown with wheat or rye. Nature finishes the great work of these plantations; for every hard wind brings down more or less of the deadened trees, and fire consumes the whole. Thus in a series of years a large plantation is obtained with very little labor. Although this is deemed one of the laziest methods of obtaining cleared lands, it is not without use. In time it occasions a change of the timber. After the pine trees are thus girted they die; but if the land is suffered to remain a few years without cultivation, there springs up an equivalent of oak and hickory in place of the pines which become extinct: a very acceptable acquisition to the pine land farmer.

Almost every planter carries on domestic manufactures to a considerable extent, and many clothe their families with cotton, and with a cotton warp filled in with wool which they prefer to white plains. There are planters who own sixty or seventy slaves, and clothe them all from their own resources. They are making great improvement every year both in spinning and weaving.

The inhabitants generally are becoming more disposed to encourage schools and are more desirous of giving liberal educations to their children than they used to be.

Since the Methodists have become numerous there is less of that indolence and distress which was common before. Preaching houses are established at almost every five or ten miles, according to population; and these are well supplied with itinerant preachers. The success attending this plan has been great.

There was a Presbyterian meeting house erected on Cattle's creek in 1778, and called the Frederician church, after Andrew Frederick, who was its principal founder. Another of the same denomination was built at Turkey hill. There are two others of the same denomination in Lewisburgh and one Episcopal church.

There are four Baptist and about fourteen Methodist churches. The latter are attended regularly by the circuit riders, and often by their local preachers. Both Methodists and Baptists increase.

The Presbyterians have supplies only from the upper country and the North Carolina Presbytery. From the want of preachers of their own denomination, the descendants of the old stock are falling in either with the Baptists or Methodists, according to the neighborhood in which they live.

The population, wealth, industry, morals, learning, and religion of the district has astonishingly improved, especially since the year 1790.

No. V.—*A Statistical Account of Beaufort, chiefly from the Communications of Dr. Finley.*

In Beaufort was established the first English settlement in South Carolina, and not far from it the French and Spaniards commenced a settlement soon after the middle of the sixteenth century, as has been already related. Why the English abandoned this site for the banks of the Ashley, has never been explained. The former has evidently natural advantages over the latter. It is probable that the present proprietors of Charlestown and the vicinity are indebted to the Spaniards for the advantages that have resulted from the change; for to be more out of their way doubtless had some influence in the dereliction of Beaufort. Whether any of the first settlers remained is uncertain, but it is probable they did not. No evidence of settlement prior to 1700 is now extant. In that year is the date of the birth of the first child which is recorded in the parish register. The first lots in Beaufort were granted in 1717. The Episcopal church was built about the year 1720. From that time to the present there have been fourteen incumbents, all of whom were Europeans, except the Rev. Galen Hicks, and the Rev. Matthew Tate. In the year 1761, when the Episcopal establishment was in full force, the vestry and church-wardens, in their letter to their correspondent in England, requesting his aid in procuring for them a minister, gave it as their opinion "that a gentleman of a studious turn and regular deportment who would maintain the authority of the church without being austere or rigid to dissenters, of which there were many, would suit better than one of a contrary disposition." There are in Beaufort also a Baptist church built in 1792, and an Independent church built in 1804. All these churches are supplied with ministers of excellent characters and regular education. The members who attend divine service at present in these different churches, far exceed what was common, or what could be accommodated prior to 1792, and among all of them great respect is paid to religious institutions.

A library society was instituted in 1802, which contains between six and seven hundred volumes. There is also a college, a grammar school, and three other schools for boys, one for young ladies, and three for young children. At these several schools there are about two hundred scholars. The college funds, when brought into action, will amount to sixty or seventy thousand dollars.

Beaufort is remarkable for the health and longevity of its inhabitants. The complexions of the people are a proof of the former—the parish register of the latter. The records of the church state the interment of sixteen persons whose ages average more than seventy-five. Three are now living whose ages average seventy-nine.

A causeway and ferry has been lately completed which renders the communication between the Island and the main safe and convenient. In 1795 a company of one hundred persons was incorporated for the purpose, but after expending much money and labor in trying to effect the object for near ten years they gave up the completion of it to the deceased William Elliot, who soon finished the work. The former company began the causeway on the Island side, and made it of pine logs filled in with mud, but the worms below and the influence of the weather above was continually rendering their work nugatory. There were too many persons to consult, their deliberations were slow, and their efforts feeble. William Elliot at length undertook it and began with the causeway on the main side, which he finished entirely of fascines; and he had begun to face the old pine log work in the same manner when his valuable life was terminated with the universal regret of the whole community. There is now an excellent rope ferry. The length of the causeways, for there is one on each side, and of the ferry ex-

ceeds a mile. The ferry is somewhat narrower than the one over Ashley river. The celerity with which this work was finished by Mr. Elliot proves that in public works one head is better than many, and that causeways may be made in Carolina more easily and with less expense than has been commonly supposed.

No. VI.—*A Statistical Account of Georgetown, chiefly from the Communications of Dr. Levy Myers, Dr. Blythe, and Samuel Smith.*

The ground on which Georgetown stands was originally granted to Mr. Perry, the ancestor of the present family of Kinlocks. It was through mistake granted a second time to the Rev. William Screven, the first Baptist minister in South Carolina, and one of the first settlers in the province. Mr. Screven, early in the eighteenth century, laid off the place in lots and assigned one for the use of the Episcopalians, one for the Baptists, and one for the Presbyterians. After this had been done, Mr. Cleland, who had married the daughter of Mr. Perry, claimed and recovered the land by virtue of his elder grant, but in the year 1737 confirmed Mr. Screven's sales of lots in consideration of the receipt of a small additional price paid by each proprietor.

A tradition prevails, that about the year 1700, a large vessel, supposed to be the Rising Sun, with three hundred and forty-six passengers on board, came without a pilot up Sampit creek to the place where Georgetown now stands, but finding no inhabitants there but Indians, the Captain made for Charlestown. On his arriving near the bar, he was boarded by a pilot who told him that his vessel could not enter the harbor without lightening. The Captain being in distress, sent his long-boat with the Rev. Mr. Stobo and some others to solicit assistance. Before the boat returned, a hurricane took place in which the vessel and every soul on board were lost. Tradition states further that the same hurricane broke open the north inlet, and that previously there had been only one inlet from the sea to Winyaw bay. The tradition, as far as respects the loss of the ship, the hurricane, and the preservation of the Rev. Mr. Stobo, is supported by well known historic documents. The other particulars, that a vessel came over Georgetown bar without a pilot which could not cross Charlestown bar with one, if true, is very remarkable. It is rendered probable from the circumstance that the bar of Georgetown has from that time to the present been constantly growing worse.

Elizabeth Commander, the grand-mother of Samuel Smith, who resided on Black river, fourteen miles from Georgetown, survived her eighty-eighth year, and brought up ten children to be men and women, the greatest part of whom attained to the age of seventy and upwards; and her eldest son Samuel to ninety-four, at which advanced period he was a strong, robust old man, and his eye-sight good.

There have been many instances of longevity in the county between Little Peedee and Catfish creek, about sixty miles north of Georgetown. Six very old men died there since the year 1800. One of them, named James Ford, died in or near 1804, at the age of one hundred. The others are, James Munnulyn, Moses Martin, Buckingham Keen, Michael Mixon, and William Watson, who all died upwards of eighty. James Munnulyn served in the office of constable at eighty-six—walked fifty miles to serve a process, and returned home again in less than three days.

Georgetown contains about one hundred and twenty dwelling houses, in which there are between six and seven hundred white inhabitants; the negroes are in the proportion of two to one. The public buildings are a gaol, court house, and three places of religious worship; one for the Episcopalians, one for the Baptists, and one for the Methodists. There are two institutions of a public nature, the Winyaw Indigo Society, and a Library Society, of which notice has been taken in the preceding history.

The diseases of Georgetown bear a striking similarity to those of Charlestown. Fever and agues or simple tertians were about 1790 common, and might be said to be endemial; but since the population of the place has increased, and the lands in its neighborhood have been cleared and put under cultivation, fever and agues seldom occur. The fever most common is the bilious remittant or double tertian, approximating to that of a continued form.

In 1807, when the influenza prevailed in Georgetown, several of the aged inhabitants died of it. Of five such, two of whom were natives, the others foreigners who had resided there upwards of forty years, the aggregate of their ages averaged seventy-one years for the life of each individual.

Georgetown is well situated for trade; it is in the neighborhood of very fertile

lands, and an extensive back country depends on it for imports and exports. Some improvements in its harbor, and an extension of inland navigation, would give it much more importance than it has ever possessed.

By the census of 1808, the number of families in Georgetown is 141—of white inhabitants, 624. In the twelve years immediately preceding 1808, there were 399 deaths, or nearly, on an average, thirty-three in each year, or 1 in 19 of the whole white population. Of these 390 deceased persons, 8 were between 60 and 70; 4 between 70 and 80; 4 between 80 and 90—the eldest 87. 4 were strangers, and 20 had not been residents above two years. 9 were drowned. The greatest number of deaths was in October and September. The least in January, February, March, and December.

Mrs. Morgan died in 1805, aged 90. She was born in Virginia, but had resided for twenty-eight years in Darlington district, about sixty miles from Georgetown. At the time of her death, 244 of her descendants were living. She wrote a good hand, and taught reading, writing and arithmetic at the age of 70, was healthy and active till within a short time of her death.

No. VII.—*A Statistical Account of Claremont District, chiefly from the Communications of Chancellor James and Rev. Dr. Furman.*

The high hills of Santee are singular objects of curiosity, as being not more than eighty or ninety miles from the ocean, and rather belonging to the low than the upper country of Carolina. They lie in a ridge from three to five miles wide, have their course from the river Santee in a direction generally between north and northeast, and with the adjacent country bear one common name. They are probably, at their greatest elevation, 300 feet above the level of the river, and affords prospects from twenty to thirty miles in extent.

Excepting a narrow strip along the river, the lower part of the hills is a bed of barren sand. Below them lies a body of good land. The best on the hills is situated from about ten miles below Statesburg to seven above it. But this extent is considerably diversified in respect of quality.

The good lands are almost all cultivated, and yield plentiful crops of corn and cotton. The plough is much used. Negro boys and girls, from ten years old and upwards, are trained to guide it. Cotton seed is the principal manure. The trees most common are oaks, hickory, and pines. Some of the latter, from the rings which surround them, are supposed to be above 200 years old. Flowering trees and shrubs are in great abundance. Among these are the locust, the dogwood, the maple, the crabtree, the hawthorn, the honeysuckle, the calico flower, the wild rose, and the sweet shrub; the pinkroot, several kinds of snakeroot, angelica, and wild saffron.

Most fruits are advantageously raised on the Santee hills; but the cherry, the peach, and the apple, are supposed to acquire there a superior flavor. Kitchen gardens, and the cultivation of exotics, have of late engrossed much attention.

Wells for procuring water have been dug as deep as eighty feet. From an inspection in a few cases, of the interior of the soil thus brought to view, the strata appear, 1, a slight brick color or black mould mixed with sand; 2, red clay; 3, white or blue marl; 4, coarse yellow sand, with white pebbles; 5, black mud with a sulphurous smell, containing in it soft round black pebbles. The water of these wells is not so good as that of the springs. The latter are abundant and excellent. Two of them near Statesburg are supposed to be impregnated with iron and sulphur.

The Wateree river, four miles from Statesburg, is navigable at most seasons by the Santee canal boats. It might be made much more useful by the junction of the small lakes on the side next to Statesburg. The Wateree swamp, for more than twenty miles in length, and for more than four miles in width, is almost in a state of nature. It produces canes and forest trees of a prodigious size. Of the latter the white and red oak, the sweet gum, the cotton tree and sicamore are the most remarkable. From a dread of freshets these low grounds have been neglected. They would prove an inexhaustible mine of wealth if by any means they were secured against inundations. Their mud makes excellent manure.

There are several considerable streams which issue from the sides of the Santee hills. These are of force sufficient to be the impelling power of several mills which are erected upon them, and they afford facilities for labor-saving machinery of several kinds. About the year 1750 a colony emigrated from Virginia, and settled the high hills of Santee. The preceding settlers were very inconsiderable. But the tide of immigration from the north was so strong that before the revolution these hills were among the most populous parts of the province. For six miles

round Statesburg country seats are now to be seen within a half mile of each other, which in appearance would do credit to a city. Most of these have been built or improved since 1798. About that time it began to be fashionable for the wealthy inhabitants near Georgetown to have at least a summer residence on the hills of Santee.

Statesburg as a village was begun in 1783 by a company, of which General Sumpter was the most influential member. Here, or rather in the vicinity, refined society may be enjoyed in great perfection. It contains ten or twelve dwelling houses, four or five stores, and an Episcopal church. There is also a circulating library which is increasing. Near to it an academy of great reputation is kept by the Reverend Mr. Roberts. Several pupils educated by him have entered the sophomore, and some the junior class in the South Carolina college.

There are two Baptist churches in the neighborhood. These and the Episcopal church are well attended; and there is among the inhabitants generally a growing respect for religious institutions. In this particular they are much altered for the better within the last twenty years. The Baptist church was first formed about the year 1770 by the Rev. Joseph Reese, and their house of worship was built on a lot given by Dr. Joseph Howard. The Rev. Dr. Furman now of Charlestown was their first settled minister, and continued with them from 1774 to 1787. Since 1798 they have been under the pastoral care of the Rev. Mr. Roberts.

The settlers from Virginia were generally Episcopalians. They have had the following preachers in succession—the Rev. Messrs. Woodmason, Walker, Davis, Richards, Tate, and Ischudi.

The climate of the Santee hills three or four miles back from the Wateree swamp has been found by experiment to be salubrious. Neither stagnant waters nor musquitoes are found there. Though the neighborhood of Statesburg is very populous, yet only four deaths have occurred in 1807 and 1808. The mercury in the thermometer has not been known to be higher than the 94th or 95th degree, and even then the nights were cool and pleasant. Few places are blest with a better climate. Large families of children are raised. Four persons are now living within twenty miles of Statesburg, two of whom are 100 years old and two above 90, and some of them can count upwards of 100 descendants.

It is worthy of observation that on the most elevated parts of the hills the cold does not make that impression which it does on the adjacent level or low country. Vegetation there is earlier by a week or fortnight than it is on lands of the latter description, though not a mile distant. The same difference is observable in the progress of cold in autumn. Vegetables are alive and thriving on the hills when those in the low lands are entirely killed. The fruit on the hills is also generally uninjured from the frost in the spring.

No. VII.—*A Statistical Account of Camden, chiefly from the Communications of the Rev. Dr. Furman.*

Camden was first settled by a colony of Quakers from Ireland about the year 1750. The principal of these emigrants were Robert Milhouse and Samuel Wyley, sensible and respectable men. A mill or mills were erected by them on Pinetree creek, which runs just below Camden, and from which the settlement was called Pinetree. The Quakers were sufficiently numerous to form a congregation. They erected a place of worship which remained till the American war. Milhouse died about the year 1755, but left children; and his posterity still exist about Edisto and the Cypress. Wyley lived several years longer; and has left a daughter, Mrs. Lang, a respectable lady living in Camden. He also left three sons.

About the year 1760, Colonel Hershaw opened a store at Mr. Wyley's in Camden. Being prosperous in business he laid out the place in lots, and in honor of Lord Camden gave it his name. He proceeded to build stores and mills, and to make other improvements. John Chesnut was a co-partner with Colonel Hershaw, having previously served his time with him. A considerable quantity of good flour was manufactured at the Camden mills, and a brewery was erected, which for some years promised to be useful. A pottery was also erected by an Englishman of the name of Bartlam. Various handicraftmen found profitable employment, and Camden continued to thrive till it was checked by the war. The Quakers as a society decreased continually from the time Camden began to thrive as a village, and are now become extinct. A place of worship was built here for the Presbyterians some years before the war; but it was burnt by the British. Camdem languished for a considerable time after the peace. It now appears to

be in a flourishing state. It was incorporated in 1791, and has ever since had a regular city police. There are about 150 dwelling houses in it. About the year 1802 a church was built by the Presbyterians, in which the Rev. Mr. Flinn lately preached. The scheme of building it was begun by the late Mrs. Alexander, wife of Dr. Isaac Alexander, who gave £200 sterling towards it. About the year 1800 the Methodists erected a Church in Camdem forty feet by thirty. They are now increasing its size by making it double the former length. The Baptists have obtained a handsome subscription for building a church. Mr. Lloyd Champion has given them a suitable lot for its site.

For several years immediately after the war, Mr. Logue, an aged Presbyterian minister from Ireland, preached statedly a part of his time in Camden. Mr. Adams, a young gentleman of the Congregational church, from Massachusetts, preached there, and also had the charge of the Orphan society's academy.

Camden is one of the largest inland cities in Carolina, and bids fair to become a considerable place of trade and business. It has an easy and quick communication with Charlestown through the Santee canal—has the support of an extensive back country in both Carolinas—possesses many advantages for the erection of labor-saving machinery in its vicinity—and ample materials of the best kind for boat and ship building. Its other advantages, the devastations it underwent in the revolutionary war, and the severe actions that were fought in its vicinity, have all been related in their proper places.

No. IX.—*A General View of the Upper Country, chiefly from the Communications of Mr. Anthony Park and Dr. Davis.*

In the year 1750, when the settlement of the upper country began, there were so many buffaloes, which have long since disappeared, that three or four men with their dogs could kill from ten to twenty in a day. Wild turkeys were also in the greatest plenty. Deer were so numerous that a rifleman with a little powder and shot could easily kill four or five in a day. A common hunter could kill in the autumnal season as many bears as would make from two to three thousand weight of bear bacon. The waters abounded with beavers, otters and musk-rats. Twenty beavers have been caught by one man in one season on Fairforest. The country was also overrun with wolves, panthers and wild cats. There was a great facility of raising stock from the profusion of native grasses and canes. When the whole country was within the grasp of a few settlers, the preference of one spot over another was generally decided by the comparative plenty of canes. Though provisions were easily raised, the labor of raising them for sale was but indifferently rewarded, for there was no regular market for any crop nearer than 100 miles. The skins of wild beasts were the most profitable remittance to Charlestown: next to them was butter and tallow, afterwards flour and hemp. In a few years indigo began to be an object of industry. Tobacco and other heavy articles would frequently do little more than pay the expense of bringing them to market. Since the year 1792 the general cultivation of cotton has materially altered the state of the country. The people have, for the most part, passed from a state of depression to easy and comfortable circumstances. By nice calculation it appears that in good seasons, from good lands and with the usual good prices, the clear profits on an acre of land planted in cotton are from ten to thirteen dollars, and in a relative proportion under less favorable circumstances. This surplus, after all expenses are paid or taken into account, will purchase the fee simple of the land, for such is its low price compared with the high value of the commodities raised upon it, that, with few exceptions, one good crop will sell for as much as the ground on which it is raised. The clear profits on other articles of culture are less than on cotton. On wheat they are about $6 to the acre, on corn from $8 to $10. As the same force of hands can cultivate more acres in wheat or corn than in cotton, the profits on each may be made to approach nearer to equality; but the advantage is decidedly in favor of cotton. This is so much the case that provisions are comparatively neglected. This neglect equalizes the profits still more, for while so many cultivate cotton, the few who plant provisions obtain a better price for what they raise. The cotton planter not only benefits himself but his neighbor, who directs his industry to other objects of culture. This reciprocal dependence and communication of benefits cements the union of all the members of the great family of Carolina.

In the upper country the proportion of the cleared to the uncleared land is about one acre of the former to eight of the latter. The proportion between the number of inhabitants and the number of acres is about one of the former to thirty-six of the latter.

While the upper country has been growing richer it has been declining in health. When the interior of this State was first settled by white men, and for many years after, disease was rarely known. The first inhabitants being easily supplied with all the necessaries of life, esteemed the country, especially when at peace with the Indians, as an asylum from the toils, cares and diseases incident to man. This happy and contented state of mind contributed, with the salubrious nature of the climate to procure for them an exemption from disease. This state of things, however, has been gradually changing from that period to the present. Ever since the last years of the eighteenth century diseases have multiplied in a ratio much exceeding the increase of population. Many types and grades incident to populous and older countries have been introduced with their usual force and malignity. The effect of industry, with a greatly increased population, has produced a revolution in the face of the country and state of the rivers, which has brought into action many latent physical causes of disease and generated new ones. The increased difficulty of procuring the necessaries of life to which the inhabitants are reduced by the diminution of the range for stock and destruction of game—the new modes of pursuit, and of living to which they are driven by this change of circumstances—the effect of a state of society progressing to civilization, all combine with physical changes in the face of the country to render diseases more prevalent than formerly.

The causes of disease, which manifested their effects upon the first inhabitants, were those that were productive of the mild intermittent fever. For a long time there was only here and there a solitary instance of this, and that amongst the more incautious upon the margins of rivers. These original and indigenous causes of disease, combined with adventitious ones arising from the new order of circumstances have concurred of late to produce, not only bilious fevers in their various grades from the mild intermittent to a grade nearly approximating to yellow fever, but also other various forms of disease.

Agues and fevers are more rare than formerly. They seem to have been merged in the more violent forms of bilious fever.

Though the upper country has grown more sickly since it became more cleared, there is ground to hope that when it is better cultivated it will again be more healthy than at present. There are already some hopeful appearances of this in some of the oldest and most highly cultivated settlements. The upper country possesses the natural requisites for health and longevity. Marriages are early and generally prolific. In one district, containing upwards of 17,000 white inhabitants, there is not one woman of the age of twenty-five who is neither wife nor widow. The sky, generally clear and serene, is seldom obscured by a series of moist, misty weather. Rains come on suddenly, fall hastily, and terminate at once, leaving a clear and settled sky. The air is pure and temperate, and although variable, is seldom subject to sudden and great changes. During the summer Fahrenheit's thermometer generally fluctuates from 65 to 86, and during winter from 20 to 55. Every year, however, there are a few days when the mercury rises in summer to 94 or 95, and in winter when it falls to 10 or 11. The soil is elevated and dry, except near the edges of the water courses in the most rainy seasons. The water from the declivity of the surface runs off speedily. There is a very inconsiderable proportion of stagnant water; none except small lagoons near the rivers, and from these there are innumerable retreats on dry and elevated spots, to which the vapor arising from the low grounds cannot reach in a perpendicular ascent. Fogs are rare and readily dissipated by the rising sun. Flies, gnats and other insects, which attend putrid air, mud and slime, are few in number, nor are they in swarms in the most boggy spots.

The numerous springs afford pure and excellent water.

Night air must be little noxious. The exposure to it is great and the bad consequences few. Metals exposed to the air are but slowly corroded. Butcher's meat may be preserved for several days in the warmest season in a house built over a spring of water commonly called a spring house.

An unusual proportion of children is raised to maturity. From their births they exhibit strong marks of health, which is seldom interrupted by puny habits. Their diseases are generally short and easily managed.

A considerable number of the inhabitants live to be old. Each district can boast of several who are between 80 and 100.

Among the first settlers the means of education were very deficient. The first school in the fork between Broad and Saluda rivers was opened in the year 1767, and in it nothing more than reading was taught. Within half a mile of the spot where this first school was opened, there is now, 1808, a seminary in which the learned languages are taught and youth are prepared for entering college. There is also another about fifty miles distant on Fair forest, and near the vicinity

of the spot on which the first cabin was built by white inhabitants in the upper country. There seems to be a general and growing desire among the people to encourage learning. The first preacher among these early settlers was the Rev. Mr. Thain, from New Jersey, who in the year, 1754 preached under an oak tree. His congregation consisted of about six families, which was then nearly the whole population of that part of the country. This settlement was broken up by the Indian war which raged between 1755 and 1763. Soon after the establishment of peace the inhabitants returned to their deserted cabins. While they re-established their plantations they were equally careful to re-establish religion, and had divine ordinances administered among them by the Rev. Dr. Alexander, and the Rev. Messrs. Tate and Simpson, and have ever since been an orderly church. Near the spot where the first sermon was delivered in 1754, there is now a large congregation and a regular Presbyterian minister. Something similar took place in other settlements. There are now among them many orderly well educated clergymen who receive from four to six hundred dollars a year for their ministerial services. Divine service is devoutly performed and decently attended. Among the professors of all denominations there is a growing and general desire to promote religion.

The first iron works in South Carolina were erected in the upper country by Mr. Buffington in 1773. These were destroyed by the tories in the revolutionary war; but several have been built since the peace of 1783.

In the year 1760 a great whirlwind began about King's Mountains and passed in a southeast direction through the Waxhaw settlement. It took off the whole roof of a large dwelling house of Mrs. Pickens so completely, that no one shingle of it has ever since been traced.

In 1808. November 15, at 9 o'clock P. M., a large ball of light about 20 feet long, appeared in the heavens and moved in a southwest direction. The light was so great that a pin might be easily picked up. There was soon after an explosion with a sound equal to that of a cannon. A rumbling noise followed for a few minutes. All this time the horizon was clear.

It is observed by old settlers that the lands have washed away much more of late than formerly; and that the spring season is several weeks later than when the country was first settled.

In the year 1755 the country from the Waxhaws on the Catawba across to Augusta on Savannah river did not contain twenty-five families. Within the same limits there are now twelve large and populous districts.

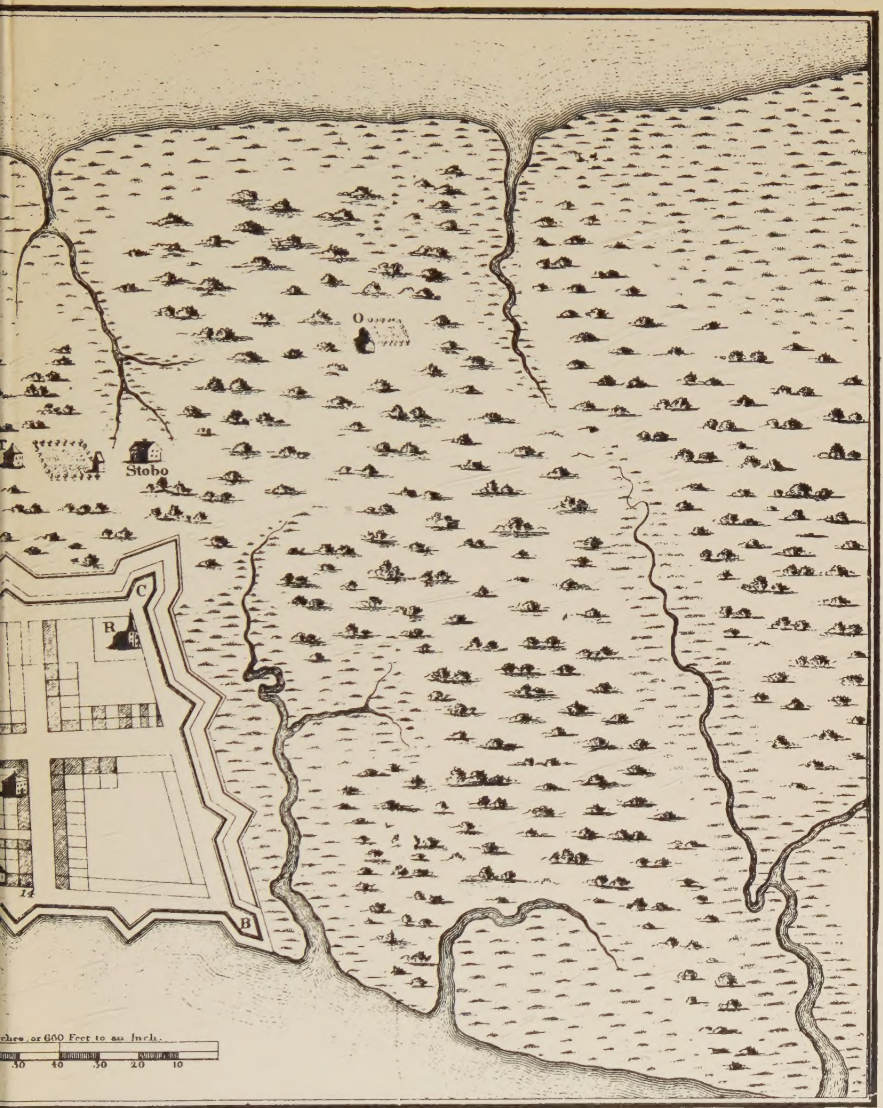
FINIS.

Ref

A. Granville Bastion
B. Craven D°
C. Carteret D°
D. Colleton D°
E. Ashley D°
F. Blake's D°

G. Half Moon
H. Draw Bridge
I. Johnson's
K. Draw Bridge
L. Palisades
M. L. Col. Rhetts Bridge

N. Kea L. Smit
Bridge
O. Minister's H
P. English Chu
Q. French D°
R. Independent
S. Ana Baptist



nces

T. Quaker Meeting House
V. Court of Guard
W. First Rice Patch In Carolina

1. *Pasquero & Garrets House*
2. *Landsacks d°*
3. *Jn. Crofskeys d°*
4. *Cheveliers House*
5. *George Logan d°*
6. *Poinsett d°*
7. *Elicott d°*
8. *Starling d°*
9. *M. Bootle d°*
10. *Tradds House*
11. *Nat. Law d°*
12. *Landgrave Smith d°*
13. *Col. Rhetts d°*
14. *Ben Skenking d°*
15. *Sindery d°*